

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Old French *herce* meant "a harrow," *bercier* "to harrow," and *rebercier* "to harrow over again," borrowed in Middle English as *rebercen*, Modern English *rebearse*. Now we *rebearse*, not the plowed field, but a speech, a play, or the like.

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DECEMBER, 1793

FRENCH KING AND QUEEN EXECUTED

Russia and Prussia Again Divide Poland

Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette Victims of the Revolution

When the King and Queen were overtaken in their flight at Varennes, and placed under arrest, Louis exclaimed, "There is no longer a King of France." Figuratively true, but in reality not. Now it is a fact. By a vote of 387 against 334 Louis was sentenced to death on January 17th, and executed on the 21st. He approached his death with dignity and courage. His last words were: "People, I die innocent." Then to his executioners, "Sirs, I am innocent of that of which I am accused, I hope my blood will consolidate the happiness of all Frenchmen."

Marie Antoinette was already condemned before her trial began on October 16th. Many charges were brought against her: some true—some false. Forged letters were produced as evidence of her guilt. She was condemned and executed the same day. Her dignified bearing was maintained to the last. As she stepped upon the scaffold, she accidentally hit a person standing by; graciously she pardoned herself.

The Republic is here in fact now, but—the Terror is not over.

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LIFE IN OUTLINE

Louis XVI
Born at Versailles Aug. 23rd, 1754
Son of Louis the Dauphin and Grandson of Louis XV
Married Marie Antoinette May 16th, 1770
Succeeded to the throne May 10th, 1774
Trial began Nov., 1792
Sentenced Jan. 17th, 1793
Executed Jan. 21st, 1793



LIFE IN OUTLINE

Marie Antoinette
Born Nov. 2nd, 1755
Daughter of Maria Theresa and Emperor Francis I of Austria
Married May 16th, 1770
Crowned May, 1774
Trial and Execution Oct. 16th, 1793

MRS. BONAPARTE FLEES FROM CORSICA

When France took possession of Corsica, one of the natives, Paoli by name, was sent into exile by the French on account of some charges brought against him. Now he has returned, and is making hasty preparations to surrender the island to the English.

Mrs. B.

UNITED STATES DECLARES ITS NEUTRALITY

President George Washington of the United States has issued a proclamation of neutrality in the war between France and England. By so doing he has stirred up a veritable hornet's nest. Mr. Thomas Jefferson is so angered because his government did with France that he has

Austria Tricked into Taking No Part

The French people stirred up more than they thought when they started their Revolution. Poland has caught the spirit, too, and has succeeded in getting for herself constitutional government. They have modeled their Constitution after that of France, having a Cabinet and Parliament, liberal suffrage, religious freedom, civil equality, and an improved condition of the serfs. They have been making a desperate attempt to get into such good condition that they can prevent their neighbors from helping themselves to their territory as they did in 1772. But just what might be expected is happening: Russia and Prussia have no intention of seeing Poland reform herself like France. Presto! Catherine II is seizing all the territory of Poland east of longitude 44° and Frederick William II is appropriating Posen, the western part of Poland with Danzig and Thorn.

By promising Austria that they would use their influence to get an exchange of Bavaria for her Austrian Netherlands, they bribed her to stay out of this Second Partition of Poland. It will only be a matter of time until the nations will divide again, and Poland will disappear from the map.

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The Nazi Revolution and Its Influence on the Teaching of History in Germany

By RICHARD H. BAUER, *Assistant Professor of History*
Valparaiso University

I

Not so long ago many of the leading political prophets of the world were freely predicting that Germany would not follow the path leading to ultimate dictatorship. Among them was a noted German scholar, who on his recent visit to the United States delivered a series of lectures at various universities, in which he assured his audiences that Adolf Hitler would never become chancellor of the Reich. But these prophecies, like so many others, failed to materialize. The unforeseen happened. Adolf Hitler not only became the chancellor, but in every sense of the word the virtual dictator of Germany, in whose hands rest the weal and the woe of his countrymen.

The Reichstag elections of last March swept the National Socialists, or Nazis, into office. Flushed with the magnitude of their victory, they immediately began to assert their authority, so that today they are in complete control of the local, state, and national governments. Following the example of the Fascists of Italy, they ruthlessly battered down all opposition. Thousands of unsympathetic office-holders, including a goodly number of Jewish extraction, were removed to make place for hungry office-seeking Nazis. Newspapers were suppressed by the score, while those that dared to make the slightest adverse criticism of the Nazi program suffered immediate suspension as a consequence. The Social Democratic Party and the Communist Party, as well as their affiliated organizations, were outlawed and their treasuries confiscated. Largely out of fear the smaller parties gave up their identity and merged with the N.S.D.A.P. (abbreviation for *Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei*). After some hesitancy the two important

parties that remained, namely the Centre Party and the German National Party, in order to avoid impending disaster and to save their party funds, likewise dissolved; whether their careers have definitely ended, or whether they are merely slumbering to wait until the storm blows over, the future will decide. At least the founding of new parties has been expressly forbidden. What is most significant of all, the Nazis have succeeded in bringing all the leading organizations of the country, no matter what their character, under their absolute control. Thus the trade-unions, the various professional organizations, and the women's and youth organizations have lost their old independence, and now receive their instructions from the government. In other words, there is only one party in Germany today, which dominates the political life of the nation, at the head of which stands Adolf Hitler, the dictator, who has countless thousands of loyal and worshipping Brown Shirts at his beck and call. His will is the supreme law of the land.

Shortly after seizing the reins of government, Hitler formally announced that the revolution had entered its constructive or "evolutionary" stage. During this period he hopes to accomplish two important objectives. The first is to build the new Fascist state, which shall incorporate the principles of the Nazi party, on the ruins of the Weimar Republic. In this new centralized and authoritative state, or the *Third Reich*, as it is often called, there will be no room for "subversive" Marxist ideas of the class struggle, nor for the "outworn" and "ineffective" institutions of liberalism, such as elections, parliaments, and parties. It will relentlessly combat any theory or movement that tends to undermine the inherent unity and racial solidarity of

the nation. Unhampered by the passing whims of parliamentary majorities, it will exercise supreme authority in all matters—political, social, and economic. In settling disputes that might arise from time to time, it will be guided solely by the principle that the interests of the nation are paramount to those of any particular group. Its chief mission will be to safeguard the purity, strength, and position of the German race, and to kindle the spirit of nationalism by keeping alive the great heroic traditions of the past. In short, it hopes to establish a better and happier society, or *Volksgemeinschaft*, in which all Germans, no matter what their status in life, will gladly join hands to promote the welfare of their race and nation. The citizens of the *Third Reich*, unlike those of the preceding Republic, will again be proud to be Germans.

Hitler's second objective is to win the masses for his principles. While it is true that he has millions of enthusiastic followers, especially among the youth of the country, there are hundreds of thousands of former Social Democrats, Centrists, and Communists, who are hostile to his ideas, but dare not voice their opposition for fear of punishment. He is eager to convert their forced silence and negative attitude into whole-hearted approbation and loyal support. In order to hasten this "inner conversion," he is leaving no stone unturned to gain his end. His faithful colleague, the smooth-tongued Dr. Goebbels, who is one of the most popular and effective Nazi speakers, has been appointed as Minister of Propaganda and Public Enlightenment, in which capacity he now exercises a rigid censorship of the movie, the press, and the radio. At present the average German citizen is just showered with propaganda. Whether he reads the newspaper, or attends the movie, or tunes in the radio, he is constantly reminded of the great achievements of the new régime. If he is disgusted with this situation and goes to the local library to find relief, he will discover to his amazement that the books, too, have been censored. Such "contaminating" works as Karl Marx's *Das Kapital*, as well as many books dealing with socialism and communism, have been removed from the shelves.¹ Dozens of foreign newspapers have been placed on the forbidden list. Besides paying close attention to the mental diet of the average citizen, the Nazis are endeavoring to stimulate interest in the *Third Reich* by instituting innumerable parades and massmeetings, and by constantly indulging in colorful pageantry. In this respect they are simply imitating the tactics of Mussolini.

Like the radio and the press, the school has become a very effective medium through which the Nazi government can mold public opinion. Strange to say, the whole educational system, from the ele-

mentary school to the university, has capitulated to the new government without offering much resistance. Today it is one of the most ardent defenders of the new order. The ease with which the present régime captured this stronghold is due to the fact that Hitler has always enjoyed a large following among the students. The National Socialist Movement, it should be recalled, is essentially a youth movement. Reared in an atmosphere of discouragement and despairing of future livelihood, millions of young men and women have turned to Hitler as their savior, who has promised to lead them to a happier future. Thrilled by the words of Dr. Goebbels that "youth can never be wrong," they flocked to the Nazi banners in ever-increasing numbers. Thousands of university students joined the army of Brown Shirts, and organized their own troop, known as the National Socialist Students' Union. Not to be outdone by their older brothers, boys in their early teens enrolled in the *Hitler Jugend*, while those under ten affiliated with the *Hitler Jungvolk*. The girls, too, joined Hitler organizations. Thus the Nazi leaders were successful in gaining the confidence of the young people of Germany. Under such circumstances it was not difficult for them to assume control of the schools.²

The teachers, on the other hand, were not so enthusiastic for Hitler and his ideas, although most of them had little love for the Weimar Republic, under which their prestige had not been as great as under the old empire.³ With the exception of the National Socialist Teachers' Union, which openly espoused his cause, the majority was either hostile or indifferent to the entire movement. The astonishing victory of the Nazis, however, affected a remarkable change in their attitude. At the annual convention of the influential German Teachers' Union, held at Magdeburg on June 17, 1933, they pledged to coöperate with the government in teaching the principles of National Socialism to the youth of the country. "Adolf Hitler, we shall see to it that our young people will become thoroughly imbued with your ideas, thoughts, and will! This is the promise of the entire teaching profession."⁴ At the same meeting in Magdeburg the German Teachers' Union was absorbed by the National Socialist Teachers' Union. Undoubtedly many teachers suddenly decided to support the new government, if only outwardly, in order not to lose their positions. Unfortunately the new leaders of Germany have seen fit to dismiss all teachers and professors whose political views do not coincide with their own. Some of the foremost professors of the country, who have established international reputations, including a number of Jews, have been summarily dismissed for political reasons. The government, however, has been lavish in rewarding sup-

porters of the new political system. Thus Dr. Ernst Krieck and Dr. Eugen Fischer, two of the leading educators to advocate Hitler's principles, were appointed as rectors of the University of Frankfurt and the University of Berlin respectively.

The government has defended its action in ousting unsympathetic teachers by maintaining that the Nazi Revolution cannot succeed unless every state official, from the highest to the lowest, stands whole-heartedly behind the program and principles of Adolf Hitler. Dissenters in public office will not be tolerated under any condition. Hitler himself has repeatedly demanded absolute and unwavering obedience on the part of his followers. Whether from inner conviction or for opportunistic reasons, several leading educators of Nazi persuasion have supported this uncompromising attitude of the government by pointing out that education under the National Socialist state has a new function, and that therefore it should not be entrusted into the hands of teachers who do not understand its mission. The foremost exponents of this new function of education are Dr. Ernst Krieck and Dr. Friedrich Alfred Beck, whose works are widely read in Germany.⁵ Without entering into a lengthy discussion of their education principles, suffice it to say that they bring a number of serious charges, some of which are rather vague, against liberalism in education. Among other things, they condemn the old liberal and humanistic institution of Germany for making the pursuit of knowledge an end in itself, for encouraging young people to study for purely selfish motives, for promoting class consciousness, for teaching an increasing number of subjects that have no earthly value, for widening the chasm between related fields of knowledge, for losing contact with the people, and worst of all, for failing to develop a sense of social responsibility and leadership among its students. All of these glaring defects, they insist, will be remedied by the Nazi theory of education, according to which no subject or course of study, whether law, medicine, history, or economics, will be an end in itself, but merely a means to an end—namely, to prepare students to be of service to their race, their nation, and their state. No longer will the young graduate enter a profession to promote his own ends, or to enhance his social prestige, but solely to work for the welfare of his fellow-men. Thus the schools of Germany hope to produce leaders who are deeply conscious of their social responsibility.

II

Just what will be the rôle of history in this new scheme of education?

On May 9, 1933, Dr. Frick, the Minister of Interior, a staunch supporter of Hitler, sent a spe-

cial circular letter to the Ministers of Public Education of the various German states, in which he informed them of the government's decision to place greater emphasis on the teaching of history, particularly on the teaching of German history, in the schools of the country.⁶ History, he stated, will be given a "commanding" position in every school curriculum. This official announcement was to be expected. For several years the National Socialists have been attacking the schools for failing to lay sufficient stress on the history of their own country. They frequently complained that their children knew more about the ancient Greeks and Romans than about their own ancestors, and that modern history, whenever it was offered, was taught for the purpose of instilling the Marxist ideas of internationalism and of the class struggle into the minds of the students. In a recent radio broadcast Dr. W. Hartnacke of the Saxon Ministry of Education bemoaned the fact that the young people knew so little of German history since 1800.⁷ Somewhat far-fetched are the Nazi accusations that this woeful neglect of German history was due to the deliberate attempts of the various educational authorities to "internationalize" the young generation of Germans.

Hitler, too, has repeatedly pointed out the importance of stressing German history. It is interesting to observe that as a student in the elementary school he preferred history to any other subject, but unfortunately his limited knowledge of the past has been colored by racial and national prejudices. In his autobiography, *Mein Kampf*, which the Nazis consider the final authority on all questions, he makes numerous references to the significant rôle of history in keeping alive the great achievements of the past.⁸ While addressing a large assembly in the *Sportpalast* of Berlin on March 2, 1933, three days before the Reichstag elections, he stated that "we wish to arouse reverence for the wonderful traditions and accomplishments of our people, as well as an appreciation for the famous men of German history—an appreciation that is guided by a spirit of modesty and humility. We shall lead our youth back into the glorious realms of our past, so that they might gain an insight into the struggles and achievements of our ancestors; humbly our children shall bow before those who lived and worked before us, in order that we might have life today. In particular, we want to train our young people in such a manner, so that they will revere the memories of those who made the supreme sacrifice for the very existence and future of our people." A few weeks later, at the impressive opening ceremonies of the Reichstag, held at Potsdam on March 21, 1933, he promised that the new government would do everything in its power to keep

alive "the great traditions, history, and culture of our people."

Making due allowance for the oratorical effects of such statements, there seems to be some justification for the Nazi contention that German history has been somewhat neglected by the schools. In examining the various guides, textbooks, and other instructional material used by the schools during the past few years, it is amazing to note how little space some of them devote to German history, especially to the period since 1870. History in the German elementary and middle schools has often been confined to the ancient and medieval fields, with some emphasis on the early modern period. One of the guides used by the history teachers of the Prussian schools, for example, contains large sections on Greek, Roman, and Medieval History, but only a few pages on the period since 1870. Of the 280 pages in the book, 274 of them cover the period before the founding of the German Empire.⁹

If the Nazi educators are mainly guided by a desire to furnish the German youth with a more comprehensive picture of their nation's past, they must be credited with a good deal of altruism. But such is not the case; an underlying reason for their emphasis on German history is to give them an opportunity for the inculcation of their political ideas and principles. They consider history, like the radio and the press, as a medium through which to influence the younger generation. At least one must admire their honesty in not trying to hide their real motives. "History," wrote Adolf Hitler a few years ago, "must arouse national pride." Moreover, it should teach valuable lessons for "future conduct," and serve as a guardian of "our national heritage."¹⁰ In a lengthy article, which appeared in the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* on August 15, 1933, Dr. Carl Goerber stated that "instruction in history must serve as an important medium for the political education of our people." The official statements of Dr. Rust, the Prussian Minister of Education, leave no doubt as to the fact that the prime purpose of all education is to train young people to become loyal defenders as well as useful members of the new order.¹¹

The instructions of Dr. Frick to the various educational authorities, in which he points out what periods and factors in German history are to be emphasized, clearly show that the Nazis are pursuing ulterior motives in teaching history. This is the same Dr. Frick who, while Cabinet Minister in the State of Thuringia a few years ago, used the schools to inject the Nazi doctrines into the minds of the children. Concerning his record as a Thuringian official, Edgar Ansell Mowrer, the able and well-known Berlin correspondent of the *Chicago Daily News*, has the following to say: "This

energetic restorer of German art and morality, who began by increasing his own salary, consciously furthered patriotism and religion in the schools, and tried to smother all non-religious and workmen's educational institutes. He introduced into the schools prayers that excited the children against the revolution (i.e., the German Revolution of 1918) and in favor of a war of liberation. He published edicts against jazz music and modern dancing under the name of 'Negro culture.' He recommended a special type of war literature, three examples of which, entitled, 'Unconquered on the Field,' 'Unconquered on the Sea,' and 'Unconquered in the Air,' were written to encourage the pipe-dream of 'the unbeaten army stabbed in the back.' He caused the destruction of some mural paintings by Schlemmer and eliminated from the Castle Museum in Weimar works by Barlach, Dix, Feininger, Klee, Kokoschka and Lehmbruck, among the best that post-war Germany produced, on the ground that they had nothing in common with 'Nordic German nature,' but portrayed 'eastern' or less valuable subhumanity. To produce such science he had the 'racial specialist,' Hans Guenther, made professor at the University of Jena. He censored films and plays according to similar criteria. He prohibited the political meetings of opponents while loaning the State Theatre for those of his own party. . . ."¹²

III

Since Dr. Frick's instructions will be incorporated in future history textbooks, they deserve closer analysis. First of all, he announced that considerable attention will be devoted to the prehistoric period of Germany, which heretofore, according to the Nazi educators, has been underestimated by history teachers, who have seen fit to treat it as "a step-child." Just as if Germans should be ashamed of their ancestors! From now on German children will no longer begin their work in history by studying the rise of civilization in the valleys of the Euphrates and the Nile, but, figuratively speaking, they will immediately be led back into the primeval forest of Germany, in order to gain an insight into the everyday life of their earliest forefathers. They will become acquainted with the peculiar virtues of the ancient Teutons, whose strength of character, determination, and fearlessness will be pointed out to them as worthy of emulation. Likewise they will be taught to appreciate and to cherish the Teutonic cultural contributions, as reflected in relics, ruins, and sagas. By stressing this remote past the Nazi educators hope to arouse national pride for the achievements, abilities, and striking racial characteristics of their forefathers.

Moreover, they maintain that knowledge of the valor and courage of the Germanic tribes will be a source of inner strength to the youth of the land, especially in days of tribulation. And, finally, they believe that the rising generation should be firmly rooted in the nation's past.

Secondly, the history of German nationalism will be treated more fully than in the past. History teachers will stress the fact that the growth of nationalism was retarded and undermined by the "evil" forces of internationalism, which led to an unfortunate estrangement of the German language, German law, and German institutions. The introduction of French words into the German vocabulary, the substitution of foreign legal customs for old German practises, the slavish imitation of other nations in the fields of art and literature—all of these have been some of the deplorable consequences of internationalism. In fact, internationalism weakened the racial bond holding the Germans together, and tended to make the average German a foreigner in his own land. The Nazis are eager to remove this "poison," which has been eating away at the German soul for generations. They wish to awaken a national consciousness among Germans, and to stimulate a development in all fields along purely national lines. They want Germans to be Germans. In the past few months, it is interesting to observe, they have made efforts to revive the German script, and have re-introduced some of the old German legal and court practises.

Finally, the last two decades of German history will receive special emphasis, even more so than the prehistoric period. "A large part of the future historical instruction," said Dr. Frick, "will be devoted to the last twenty years of our age. The tremendous experience of the World War, in which our people fought heroically against a world of enemies, the degradation of our country by the Treaty of Versailles, and the subsequent breakdown of the liberalistic-Marxist *Weltanschauung* are to be treated as fully as the awakening and liberation of the nation through the National Socialist movement."¹³ The object of the Nazis in giving so much space to recent developments is a twofold one. While they wish to arouse an understanding for the problems that confront Germany today, they are eager to discredit the Weimar Republic and the principles for which it stood, such as parliamentary government, elections, and democracy, as well as to ridicule the ideas of liberalism, communism, and internationalism. At the same time, of course, they wish to glorify their own movement and its leaders. In the opinion of many Nazi leaders, the National Socialist Revolution—which they like to call "our" revolution—was even more significant than the French Revolution, and hence deserves to

be given a comprehensive treatment in the textbooks. Only once in a thousand years, Hitler has often stated does the world witness a movement so far-reaching in its consequences as the Nazi revolt. Dr. Goebbels predicted that within the next fifty years the National Socialist Revolution would sweep across Europe, destroying the last vestiges of the "antiquated" liberal institutions, which had their origin in the French Revolution. Assuredly, if the Nazi movement is so important, it should be given a conspicuous place in the textbooks.

Besides indicating that the aforementioned periods would be stressed, Dr. Frick called attention to the fact that several important elements or factors would be impressed upon the minds of the young people. First and foremost is the racial factor, which the Nazi educators believe should form a central theme of all history. Accordingly, German history will be presented as the struggle of a race to perpetuate itself. This struggle was a twofold one, both offensive and defensive; on the one hand, the Germans sought new land and soil for the propagation of their race, and, on the other, they defended their territory against the encroachments of hostile races. In this long and bitter conflict the Germans acquired certain definite racial characteristics and attributes, or virtues, as the Nazis would say, which the latter feel should be handed down to future generations in all their strength and purity. In the treatment of the racial factor, such topics as the courageous German resistance to the westward penetration of the Slavs, by which the racial identity of the Nordics was safeguarded, will be given special consideration. Incidentally, German children will be reminded of the fact that certain regions to the east of the Elbe River were once held by former members of their race at a time when the Slavs were still poor fishermen in the Pripet marshes. They will also be told that the infiltration of non-Nordic and especially of non-Aryan races has tended to weaken the racial foundation of the nation. If the intermarriage with widely different races continues, the Nazis fear that the quality of the racial stock in Germany will rapidly deteriorate, while Germany as a state will rapidly decay, thereby becoming an easy subject for attack and conquest by stronger races. From the foregoing it is evident that the present government of Germany wishes to make its young people race-conscious, in order that they might do everything in their power to promote the integrity, purity, welfare of the race. It might be interesting to add that the race question, aside from the unfortunate wave of anti-Semitism, has aroused widespread interest in Germany. During the past year dozens of books, pamphlets, and articles have been published on racial hygiene and other aspects of the

question. Quite a few of them, to be sure, have been written by fanatics.

The second element to be emphasized is the importance of leadership in history. Obviously the Nazi leaders are inclined to agree with Carlyle's statement that "history is the story of great men." More than heretofore the forces and movements operating in history will be centered around the personalities of famous leaders. The object is to show that they have no significance unless guided and controlled by leaders. Much attention will be paid to the contributions of such outstanding characters as Charlemagne, Frederick the Great, Bismarck, and, last but not least, Adolf Hitler, the founder of the *Third Reich*. (Will history teachers, by the way, tell their students that Frederick the Great, whom the Nazis regard as their spiritual ancestor, tolerated the Jews, and that he disliked the German language, preferring to speak French?) This undue emphasis on the rôle of leadership is part of the propaganda of the government to indoctrinate the youth of the nation with the Nazi theory of leadership.¹⁴ The Nazis, it should be recalled, condemn the democratic or parliamentary type of leader, largely because he is elected by the unthinking masses and therefore has to cater to their passing fancies and interests. Such a leader, they say, is ineffective, irresponsible, and often subject to the forces of corruption. On the other hand, they praise the Nazi or Germanic type of leadership as being far superior to the other. They maintain that the Nazi leader, who gains his position of trust by virtue of his force of character and not through the instrumentality of elections, is much more efficient, because his hands are not tied by any foolish promises to the electorate; in fact, he need pay no attention to the selfish wishes of any particular group. While it is true that he demands absolute obedience on the part of his followers, it should not be forgotten that he shoulders full responsibility in all matters. The most famous leaders of German history—so the German children will be told—belonged to this second or Nazi type. In the United States and elsewhere such letters would be called by the unvarnished name of "autocrat" or "dictator."

History, according to Dr. Frick, should not merely support the racial ideas of the Nazis and confirm their theory of leadership, but it should develop a heroic attitude toward life. History teachers should therefore place emphasis on such incidents and events of German history which are best suited to instil a spirit of heroism. In all cases, however, they should condemn the pacifistic attitude as the philosophy of weaklings. In view of the fact that Germany is surrounded by hostile powers, a heroic outlook, in the opinion of Dr.

Frick, will be a source of strength to all Germans. In expressing these views he is merely repeating the sentiments of Hitler, who has often denounced the pacifism and "spinelessness" of the Weimar Republic.

In looking at Dr. Frick's instructions as a whole, it is clear that German history will be given a preferred position in the schools of the country. But will it be taught to the exclusion of other history? Will Greek and Roman history be neglected entirely? It is reassuring to know that such will not be the case. Other nations will be studied as before, but from an entirely new standpoint. Strange to say, they will be woven into the general fabric of German history. At first sight this task seems utterly impossible. But the Nazi educators have devised a simple and unique method whereby the history of Persia, Babylonia, Egypt, Greece, and Rome will be included in the general survey of German history. They have discovered that race, which explains so many things to them, is a convenient connecting link to bring all of these nations together. For example, they will point out that Nordic tribes penetrated into the interior of Asia Minor and Northern Africa during the fifth century before Christ, where they exerted a deciding influence upon the history of such nations as Babylonia and Persia until they were finally absorbed by other—and inferior—races. The Greeks, too, were closely related to the Nordics, while the Roman's owed much to the infiltration of Nordic blood. Moreover, the history of Scandinavia, England France, and Austria were determined by the presence of Nordics. On the basis of race, therefore, German children will become familiar with the history of kindred nations; but the history of Germany proper will always form the nucleus. Undoubtedly this method will tend to strengthen the popular but erroneous belief in the superiority of the Nordic race. But that is just what the Nazis hope to accomplish.

IV

As yet no textbooks incorporating Dr. Frick's instructions have appeared, but several outlines and guides on the recent history of Germany, designed for use in elementary and middle schools, have been published. Of these the most important ones are as follows: Paul Garz and Heinrich Schuessler, *Germany—Awake!* (Published by Julius Beltz, Langensalza, 1933); Walter Gehl, *The National Socialist Revolution* (Published by Ferdinand Hirt, Breslau, 1933); and Ernst Weber, *History of the Struggle and Dissolution of the German Nation, 1918-1933* (Published by Moritz Duesterweg, Frankfurt-am-Main, 1933). A brief examination of these books will give one a picture

of the manner in which recent German history will be presented in the schools.

It is hardly necessary to read the first book, since its striking title of *Germany—Awake!*, which happens to be the slogan of the National Socialist party, is indicative of the spirit in which it is written. From beginning to end it is saturated with Nazi propaganda. In the very first chapter the idea of parliamentary government is ridiculed. Here the authors tell the story of ten explorers, whose ship on its journey into the Arctic regions is capsized by floating blocks of ice, making its continued voyage impossible. Its valuable cargo, containing a large part of the rations, is lost. The wireless appeals for help bring no response. The men grow desperate. Each one has his own plan of what should be done, but none is accepted. There are many heated discussions, which enkindle the flames of passion and hatred. Dissension grows from day to day. In the meantime the rations reach the vanishing point. Finally one of the ten, who realizes the futility of further discussion, forces the other nine to submit to his leadership. There is now only one will. The lives of all ten are rescued. In this story Germany is represented by the ship, while the parliamentary system is satirized by the useless discussions; the savior, of course, is Adolf Hitler. Thus the German children are taught to denounce political parties and to extol the virtues of Fascism.

The second chapter, entitled "Into the Depths," briefly reviews the period 1918-1933. In a series of readings it sets forth the trials and tribulations of the German people under the Weimar Republic. The authors repeat Hitler's old charge that Germany was not defeated on the field of battle, but was betrayed by the socialists at home, who "stabbed the Fatherland in the back," so to speak, and who founded the Weimar Republic. Woodrow Wilson, the "idol of the world," on the basis of whose fourteen points Germany laid down her arms, is taken to task for not keeping his promises. Then follows a list of important events characterizing Germany's path to degradation, including the shameful Treaty of Versailles with its impossible demands; the "robbery" of Alsace-Lorraine, the Saare, and the German colonies; the occupation of the Rhine; the French invasion of the Ruhr; the "cruel" disarmament of Germany; the folly of the Dawes Act, and a host of other related topics. The tragedy of it all was that the ineffective Weimar Republic submitted to these humiliations!

Hitler's successful crusade against the combined forces of "Socialism," "communism," "internationalism," and "materialism," all of which were tolerated by the Weimar "System," is related in the third and final chapter, entitled "Upwards,"

which might just as well have been written by some official propagandist of the National Socialist Party. There are short biographical sketches of Hitler, the "Leader" (*der Fuehrer*, as the Nazis would say), and of his bosom companion Hermann Goering, who is now President of the Prussian Ministry. Several pages are devoted to the program and organization of the N.S.D.A.P. as well as to the life of Horst Wessel, the martyred leader of a Brown Shirt battalion of Berlin, who shortly before his assassination by communists wrote the most stirring and popular of all the Nazi political anthems. The last part of the chapter describes the "Day of Potsdam" of March 21, 1933, when the Nazis officially took over the reins of government. On this day the "Spirit of Potsdam" conquered the "Spirit of Weimar."

The second book, *The National Socialist Revolution* by Dr. Walther Gehl, discusses German history since 1914, but largely confines itself to the period since January 30, 1933, when President Hindenburg appointed Adolf Hitler as chancellor of the Reich. It contains numerous excerpts from the speeches of Hitler, Goebbels, Goering, and other Nazi leaders. Aside from some interesting charts and documentary material, its treatment of recent German history is colored by a strong Nazi bias. Hence it is far from being an objective account of the National Socialist Revolution.

The third book, *A History of the Struggle and Dissolution of the German Nation 1918-1933* by Dr. Ernst Weber, is the most comprehensive of all. Like the other two, it is really a compilation of extracts from the writings of such well-known Germans as Gustav Frenssen, Erich Brandenburg, Hermann Stegemann, and Adolf Hitler. Dr. Weber himself contributed twelve historical sketches, which clearly reflect his prejudices in favor of the National Socialist movement. Large sections are devoted to the Treaty of Versailles and the consequent enslavement of Germany by foreign powers. There are glowing accounts of the various Nazi leaders, including Hitler, Goering, and Horst Wessel. The Weimar "System" with its liberal institutions is severely denounced. In order to awaken the national pride of the student, patriotic poems are scattered throughout the book.

Written purely from the Nazi standpoint, the three foregoing books fail to give an objective picture of postwar Germany. Their prime purpose is to glorify the National Socialist Revolution and its leaders. Not even the slightest attempt is made to understand the great tasks and difficulties that confronted the Weimar Republic. The names of such outstanding leaders as Dr. Stresemann and Dr. Bruening are scarcely mentioned, while their contributions receive no consideration at all. But

in spite of these shortcomings, the books are bound to meet with the approval of Dr. Frick and the Nazi educational authorities. It is quite safe to say that an accurate and objective study of recent German history would not be adopted by the schools.

V

The strong wave of nationalism that swept across Germany during the past year affected every field of activity. Not even the teaching of history was left untouched. It was only natural to expect that greater emphasis would be placed on the teaching of German history. Perhaps this change is to be welcomed, particularly if it is recalled that German history was somewhat neglected in the schools of the country. But it is very unfortunate that history will be largely interpreted from the National Socialist viewpoint. It is even more unfortunate that Dr. Frick, in deciding what historical elements and periods should be stressed, used Hitler's *Mein Kampf* as his final authority. The result is that the racial factor, for example, will be given more attention than it deserves. In view of the strong anti-Semitic feeling prevalent in Germany today, the determined policy of the government to make the young people more race-conscious than before is rather unwise. Likewise the efforts to develop a heroic attitude toward life, which despises all forms of pacifism, are to be questioned. Worst of all, in stressing the so-called Germanic or Nazi theory of leadership, students will be impressed with the importance of blindly obeying their leaders. This is tragic, indeed, for it marks a return to the old Prussian spirit with its insistence on absolute and unquestioning obedience.

As much as the practice of teaching history to further nationalistic aims is to be deplored, it should be pointed out that the Nazi government is not alone guilty of this offense. In fact, the practice is a universal one. Even in the United States the course in American History is frequently designed to awaken an appreciation for democratic institutions. Perhaps the day will never come when history will be taught solely for history's sake.

In conclusion, a word or two should be said about the unhappy position of the history teacher in Germany under the present régime. Just as there is no freedom of the press or freedom of assembly in Germany, there is no freedom of discussion in the classroom. The teacher must support the Nazi principles of government, or else he is forced to suffer the consequences. He dare not praise the virtues of such liberal institutions as parliamentary government and political parties; he dare not advocate internationalism in any form or manner; above all, he dare not attack the government, which

stands above all criticism. In short, he lacks full freedom of expression, so necessary for his work. A dictatorship, after all, can only thrive on mental and physical suppression.

¹ The author, while engaging in research in Germany, has repeatedly experienced difficulties in obtaining socialist literature in various libraries.

² Hitler's phenomenal success in winning the youth of the country is graphically explained in Chapter XIII of Edgar Ansell Mowrer's book, *Germany Puts the Clock Back*, Published by Wm. Morrow & Co., N.Y., 1933. This book is forbidden in Germany, but is sold from under the counter.

³ Cf. article by Dr. F. Fikenscher in *Die Scholle*, Munich, July, 1933, p. 549.

⁴ Complete report of the Magdeburg meeting will be found in the *Allgemeine Deutsche Lehrerzeitung*, Berlin, June 17, 1933, No. 24, pp. 413-415.

⁵ Cf. Ernst Krieck, *Nationalpolitische Erziehung*, Armen-Verlag, Leipzig, 1932; also Friedrich Alfred Beck, *Geistige Grundlagen der neuen Nationalsozialistische Erziehung*, A. W. Zickfeldt, Osterwieck, 1932.

⁶ Details of Dr. Frick's instructions to be found in *Preussische Lehrerzeitung*, Berlin, August 1, 1933, No. 84.

⁷ A. W. Hartnacke, *Der Neubau des deutschen Schulwesens*, Quelle & Meyer, Leipzig, 1933, p. 7f.

⁸ Adolf Hitler, *Mein Kampf*, Published by Franz Eher, Munich, 1932, pp. 12-14.

⁹ Cf. *Lehrerbuch zum Grundriss der Geschichte fuer die Oberstufe*, Published by B. G. Teubner, Leipzig, 1928.

¹⁰ Adolf Hitler, *Mein Kampf*, p. 473.

¹¹ *Allgemeine Deutsche Lehrerzeitung*, July 1, 1933, pp. 449-451.

¹² E. A. Mowrer, *Germany Puts the Clock Back*, pp. 203-205.

¹³ See footnote No. 6.

¹⁴ Cf. article by Josef Streicher, "The National Socialist Principle of Leadership," in *Die Scholle*, Munich, July, 1933, pp. 557-563.

The New Italy (*Calcutta Review* for August) written by Dr. Taraknath, now living in Germany suggests that the present foreign policy of Il Duce is based on the sacred egoism of a great people and aims to secure international support which will add to Italian prestige in western politics to fight such wars as will enable Italy to gain greater power to expand and to wring greater victories through peace and assertion of the rights of the Italian people to a predominance in world affairs.

Writing on Manchuria and American Opinion in Contemporary Japan for September, Paul Hibbert Clyde says that "the tragedy in American-Japanese relations is that there has been no adequate recognition of the effect of the Hay Treaty on spheres of influence. The great bulk of American opinion supports the ideal of world peace. Japan in her Manchurian policy has proclaimed a similar ideal. If one may accept the sincerity of these national objectives it would seem that the basic difference between United States and Japan during the past twenty-eight years constitutes a sad commentary on the intelligence of both peoples. Yet underneath nationalistic prejudice and deceit there are still the basic qualities which may lead to a better mutual understanding."

Our Forefathers in Hawaii

A Description of a Unit in Social Science, Offered to Seniors of The Kamehameha Schools in Honolulu, Hawaii

By ALFRED M. CHURCH

Instructor in Social Sciences, The Kamehameha Schools

POLYNESIAN HERITAGE NEGLECTED

"The Pilgrims attached no disgrace to labor. Governor Bradford worked in the fields like any other man—the women did the homework and made the clothes. Americans today are proud to trace their descent from these workers."¹

So reads the schoolboy of Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian ancestry in his American History book, and we hope that he is impressed with the fact that work is honorable and that "our forefathers" builded a great nation on that foundation. But with the school teacher trained in the traditions of American history—still facing toward the Atlantic—and history books organized from the point of view of European expansion, he may never realize that industry is not an exclusive characteristic of the founders of the United States. It may never be brought to his attention that Kamehameha the First, the Napoleon of the Pacific, after completing the unification of the Hawaiian Islands "urged the chiefs and common people to raise food while he set the example by doing the same thing. . . . All this the chiefs and common people saw with their own eyes—that their lord and master labored with his own hands. . . . The common people said of Kamehameha, 'He is a farmer, a fisherman, a maker of cloth, a provider for the needy and a father to the fatherless.'"²

Again, under the heading "The Greatest of All Voyages," the Hawaiian schoolboy reads about Columbus braving the unknown dangers of the stormy Atlantic in three vessels, the smallest of which was forty tons, and he is impressed by the courage, skill and determination of that great voyager. But he may never know about the well authenticated voyages of Hawaii Loa, in outrigger canoes, back and forth among those small specks of islands thousands of miles apart in the vast Pacific, centuries before Columbus. The early Polynesians were always in quest of land they believed to lie to the east, and it is very probable that some of those hardy pioneers touched the Americas.

Through hearing the generalizations of the uninformed about the extremely "primitive" ways of life of the Polynesians, the inferiority of this race or that race in mental or physical qualities, the youth needs an understanding of the real facts in order to keep him from falling into the attitude

that his Hawaiian background is a handicap. He should know, for example, that

The Polynesians developed to a very high stage of civilization without metals.

Their houses were excellently adapted to the climate and the best possible use of the materials available was made.

Those educated in the history and genealogy of their tribes had trained their memories to a remarkable degree. (Witness the case of one of these "classical" scholars reciting the genealogy of his whole tribe before a New Zealand land court. It contained the complete family tree of each of over 400 names, and took three days to deliver.)

The Ancient Hawaiians seem to have done fairly well in solving the problem of over production and unemployment when we realize that their Makahiki festival lasted four months of every year and during that time work and war were tabu.

And the list of achievements of "our forefathers" might be extended for many pages. As with any culture there are some darker phases which should not be ignored but from which lessons should be drawn.

OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

The fundamental task of the social studies in the secondary school is to give the student a fuller understanding and appreciation of his social heritage so that he may better understand, and approach with greater intelligence, contemporary problems. Hence, the particular background of the Pacific peoples should not be overlooked in our eagerness to impart the all important integrating features of Western civilization. It is especially fitting that ancient Hawaiian civilization should have a place in the curriculum of the Kamehameha Schools of Honolulu. These schools were founded through the beneficence of Princess Bernice Pauahi Bishop, last of the royal line of the Kamehamehas, and all the boys and girls attending the schools are of the Hawaiian or part Hawaiian blood. A unit entitled "Our Forefathers in Hawaii," which is interpretative of the *civilization* (contrasted with the usually supposed barbarism) of the ancient

Hawaiians, has been set up in the senior Social Science course with the following objectives:

Understanding: The Polynesians probably came from south-eastern Asia and gradually spread out into the islands of the Pacific through a series of difficult migrations. Recent studies indicate that the development of this new Pacific Race was the result of a fusion of Caucasian, Mongolian and Malayan stocks. Their environment caused them to evolve a distinctive type of culture. The stage of civilization reached before the coming of Europeans was fairly complex, as evidenced by the material objects of their civilization, their activities, their institutions and their ideals and concepts. The northernmost branch of the Polynesians, the Hawaiians, developed a culture but slightly different from their southern cousins and it compares favorably with that of other racial groups of the world.

Appreciations:

1. A feeling of pride in the fine achievements and institutions of the Ancient Hawaiians.
2. A desire to know more about the social heritage which they left.
3. A desire to keep alive the good traditions and qualities of the race, and fuse them with the best of the Western culture.

Skills and Habits:

1. Increased ability to judge human values and to compare and evaluate institutions, customs, arts, ideals of mankind.
2. Increased skill in note taking.
3. Ability to take part in discussion of questions roused by the study.

TOPICS

Fortunately, the Bernice P. Bishop Museum of Polynesian Ethnology and History is within the confines of the school campus so that members of the museum staff coöperate in presenting the different phases of Hawaiian culture. The subjects covered may be placed in the following categories:

- I. Material Conditions
 - Race
 - Geology of Hawaiian Islands
 - Fauna
 - Trees and Plants
- II. Intellectual Habits (& Arts and Science)
 - Featherwork and Decorations
 - Music
 - Sports and Games
 - Medicine
 - Language
 - Religion
 - Language, Riddles, Proverbs
 - Folklore
 - Astronomy, Calendar
 - Poetry
- III. Material Customs
 - Houses and Dwellings
 - Bowls, Canoes, Weapons, Wood
 - Nets, Basketry, Cordage
 - Feasts and Holidays
 - Preparation of Food
- IV. Economic Customs
 - Agriculture
 - Navigation
 - Fishing
- V. Social Institutions
 - Family Life
 - Education
- VI. Public Institutions
 - Polynesian Oratory

Government
Warfare
Religion (also in II)

METHOD

The manner of presenting the material of the course is varied but the lecture method is used for the most part. Opportunity for student reaction is given in the quiz and discussion groups held in the social science class shortly after the subject is presented. In these groups the main points of the lecture are reviewed and such questions are discussed and comparisons made as are suggested by the lecturer. Often the class adjourns to the Bishop Museum for a part of the period to see something of pertinent interest there or to ask more questions. The speakers have in almost all cases made their talks attractive to young people by such devices as: use of stereoptical slides, demonstrations of handicrafts (roof thatching for example), bringing as guests old Hawaiians versed in the traditions and lore of old Hawaii, a visit to the Hawaiian forest on the heights back of the school, use of maps, display of objects from the Museum, etc.

Opportunity for further activity will be afforded later in the year when members of the class may assist in planning and presenting a Hawaiian Pageant.

RESULTS

In the opinion of the social science teachers, the results of the course are good if one may judge by the interest in discussion groups, attitude toward the subject, desire to gain further information on the topics, and care in keeping notebooks. An attitude test of the objective type will give more information as to what is being accomplished.

In this day of emphasis on world history and "Survey of Civilization" courses, we may question the advisability of focusing attention on the study of the culture of such a comparatively small group. Admitting that the broad view of world-mindedness is necessary, we should not neglect to develop Pacific-mindedness, and to include in our social science curriculums that which enables us to understand our present situation in the Pacific area and more particularly in Hawaii. The neglect of local conditions seems to be one of the weak points of our present social science curriculums. Too long have we turned toward Europe alone as the fountain-head and source of materials used in the social studies for rebuilding and edifying the image of the past. Let us draw some of our illustrations from the Pacific area.

¹ Halleck, R. P., *History of Our Country*, American Book Co., New York, 1930, p. 76.

² Kuykendall, Ralph S. and Gregory, Herbert E., *A History of Hawaii*, Macmillan Co., Co., New York, 1928, p. 87.

Type-Study Units in the Social Studies

By DONALD L. McMURRY, Ph.D.

1. THE CHILD AND THE CULTURAL HERITAGE

The term "unit," having become deservedly popular among educators, has suffered the fate of many popular slogans that have been degraded to cover a multitude of sins. The fact that this term has been stretched to cover many doubtful practices, however, ought not to obscure the real value of the idea it represents. The purpose of this article is to attempt to separate some of the unitary wheat from its chaff by describing and evaluating a certain kind of unit—the type study—and by trying to show some of its relations to other kinds of instructional units.

The selection and treatment of units depends upon the objectives sought. Two schools of educators have attacked the problem of educating the coming generation from what appears to be two diametrically opposed points of view. One, interested in the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, has tried to select from the body of useful information available to scholars the things that it is good for young people to know. The tendency of many in this group has been to impose upon young children a summary of what scholarly adults think is worth knowing, without sufficient regard for the interests and the capacities of the learners. The other group has started with the child to be educated, focussing attention on his nature, growth, and interests, trying to devise an education that will appeal to his emotions and bring out his growing abilities. Emphasis on the child has often obscured the question of what he needs to learn. In extreme cases this results in the child-centered school in which the children decide what they are to study and how much of it they want.

The kind of instruction described in this article is not based upon the idea that the real or supposed spontaneous desires of the pupils determine the content of the curriculum. It is based upon the idea that society has bequeathed a cultural heritage to the present generation and that the child is surrounded by a set of social realities to which he needs to be adjusted; and that it is a proper function of education to teach as much as possible of the most important aspects of these things. It is assumed that adult scholars and educational experts ought to be better qualified than is the child to determine what elements from history and from the developing world that surrounds him are most useful in helping him to develop a well-rounded personality, to become a useful and well-adjusted member of society, and to understand

his environment. Viewed from this standpoint the problem is one of selecting and organizing subject matter.¹

There is another side, however, which is equally important and equally beset by difficulties—the transmission of the selected subject matter into the minds of those who are being educated. Presentation of materials incomprehensible to pupils is useless. Selection of materials suitable to a given student or a given grade level is conditioned by the probability that the pupil will be able to understand, master, and use them. This, in turn, is dependent upon the nature of the learning process and the skill of the teacher. Therefore the objectives sought, the materials to be used, the learning process, and the teaching process, are interdependent, and it is difficult if not impossible to deal effectively with one of these things without reference to the others. "The necessities of scholarship, the realities of society, and the requirements of the teaching and learning process—these form inescapable covenants . . ."² binding upon all who teach or prepare materials for schools as well as upon the Commission on the Social Studies. It is necessary to keep all these things in mind while discussing such subjects as selection of content for courses, organization of materials into units of study, or the use of type studies.

2. CUTTING UP THE "SEAMLESS WEBB"

"Such is the unity of all things that the first sentence on instruction in the social studies in the schools strikes into a seamless web too large for any human eye. Whether we consider the intrinsic nature of the various realities included under the head of social science, or the results that flow from the interpretation of them in the schools, or their place in the unfolding of history, we are in the presence of universality far beyond our grasp."³

These opening sentences of the first part of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies emphasize the initial difficulty of curriculum makers: the whole field is beyond the complete comprehension of great scholars and men of affairs, to say nothing of pupils in elementary or secondary schools. Even after a careful selection has been made there remains a vast multiplicity of inter-related facts and concepts. Whether considered as a single mass or related material, or as a related group of organized "subjects" or "disciplines," this mass is too great to be studied as a whole at any given place in the curriculum. It must be studied

piece meal in some detail before the parts can be understood and synthesized intelligibly. The seamless web must be cut up into pieces of suitable size and shape to fashion intellectual garments that school children can put on. The whole must be divided into parts, both large divisions and subdivisions.

The most obvious general organization of the entire field of the social studies is that suggested by the separate disciplines of history, geography, economics, political science, etc., each of which has contributions to make toward the understanding of the whole. This division, moreover, has the advantage that each of these disciplines is already organized within itself—at least better than in many of the amorphous schemes for disregarding the boundaries of these subjects. The danger of dividing the whole field into apparently unrelated compartments is probably no greater in this organization than in any other if the divisions between subjects are not taken too seriously. There is no good reason why geographical factors resulting in the demand for better transportation after the War of 1812 should be barred from the history class, nor why the literary merits of Webster's reply to Hayne should not be appreciated in the same place, nor even why a history text should not be literature if such a text can be found. In any case, some division of the whole field into parts that can be studied one at a time is necessary, but the interrelationships between these parts should not be neglected.

Each of these major divisions, in turn, can be divided and sub-divided until satisfactory units of study, not too extensive or complicated to be comprehended by students of the grade for which each is intended, are arrived at. These units can be made a basis for detailed classroom method; in combination, when interrelationships are worked out, they contribute to the understanding of the larger divisions.

3. MORE ABOUT LESS OR LESS ABOUT MORE?

Selection of units and of material to be used in studying them depends upon the kind of course that the curriculum maker has in mind. It may be an outline or survey course in which a little attention is given to each of a great many things, or it may be an intensive course in which fewer topics are studied more thoroughly. A somewhat similar distinction may be drawn between the informational type of course in which the pupil is expected to learn a great many facts because they are supposed to be of some value to him, and the functional type in which information is selected for its use in solving problems which the pupil has under consideration. The designer of courses ought to know

which of these elements, or what combination of them, he is driving at, when he selects his units and his materials.

Most of our schools have acquired the textbook habit, and textbooks are commonly the chief reliance of both teachers and pupils. Even in many school systems that have drawn up new curricula ostensibly disregarding the textbook arrangement of materials, the greater part of the actual content detailed in the outlines is that to be found in standard texts. This being the case, the nature of these texts is of great importance.

Authors and publishers of most of these books have felt the necessity of covering an extensive field in one volume of limited size. There are many things worth knowing about that ought to be at least mentioned. The result has been a tendency to reduce these books to outlines. Each item in the outline tends to be a summary, condensed, or abstract statement based upon the digestion of a large quantity of information. It represents the results of study rather than the process by which understanding is arrived at.⁴ It is useful to the student who already knows the material on which it is based, but meaningless to one who does not have the background of experience, reading, or study to interpret it.

Failure to convey meaning is especially serious because one of the main objectives of the social studies is to give an understanding of the development and nature of human society. These studies are not tool subjects like reading and writing. If they fail to convey meaning and give understanding they fail in one of their chief purposes. This failure may be the result of too much condensation or of stating generalizations or abstractions without concrete illustrations. It is doubtful whether anyone can properly understand a generalization if he is unable to produce such an illustration. It is especially important to keep this in mind in the schoolroom, where, as Dr. Beard states it, "It is not adults we are addressing; it is children ranging in years from five to eighteen or twenty. We must beware of generalizations that transcend their knowledge and experience, abstractions that cannot sink into immature minds. 'No one can see farther into a generalization,' William James reminds us, 'than his own knowledge of details extends.'"⁵ The ease, therefore, with which general, abstract, or summary statements are comprehended depends upon the pupil's background of experience and knowledge. These are less at lower than at higher grade levels. For this reason it is especially necessary at the lower grade levels to treat the subjects that are discussed fully and concretely; otherwise the work tends to degenerate into the formal memorizing of words without building up the concepts they are

supposed to represent. The kind of teaching that fails to make true meaning clear encourages blind acceptance of words and phrases without any definition or precise analysis of what they signify. This is one of the things that intelligent persons ought to be educated out of.

4. UNITS OF STUDY

The popular, widely used, and much abused device of organizing materials into units of study can, if properly applied, remedy many of the abuses that have just been complained of. It can avoid the practice of studying miscellaneous collections of unrelated facts by organizing materials into units, each of which is based upon some significant idea or development, or set of related ideas or developments. This focusses attention on the more fundamental topics. The central, organizing idea or set of ideas determines the arrangement and use of details. The purpose in organizing a unitary course in history for the Junior High School, according to Hill and Weaver, is "to select for study only such episodes, persons, and details as will serve to interpret or explain the significant aspects and movements of the past which constitute the units of the course. From this point of view, incidents are regarded as primarily illustrative in character, important not for themselves alone but rather as a means to an end, the end being the understanding of the unit. As a result, many of the details ordinarily included in a course planned along encyclopedic lines⁶ will be omitted from a course organized in accordance with the unitary principle, while certain items generally omitted in an encyclopedic course will be included. In short, when the unitary principle is followed, factual material will be selected solely for its interpretive or educative worth, not because of its value as factual information or knowledge."⁷ This suggests a functional study of the topics selected as units. It also implies intensive treatment with adequate concrete illustrations. As to the selection of detailed facts for these illustrations, it might be suggested that when illustrative material can be found which has intrinsic as well as illustrative value, two birds can be killed with one stone.

Charles A. McMurry, who frequently used the phrase "large unit of study,"⁸ emphasized a kind of unit to which he applied the term "project." It is based upon the notion that much of what is important in the activities of life had been the result of men's planning and of working out their plans in practice, as in the building of a canal or a railroad or in the organization of a new government by a convention. In each case we have the conditions out of which the project arose, the plan projected, the steps in its accomplishment, and the results. This,

in adult life, is the counterpart of a child's own projects, as when he builds a shack or makes a model airplane. By carrying the pupil beyond his own simple projects to a study of grown men's projects which have affected adult life in important ways, his knowledge of his environment and of its past is increased very effectively. Each of these projects, built up about some central, organizing idea or problem, furnishes an adequate unit of study.⁹

The size and scope of units that have been suggested by various advocates of unitary systems of teaching have varied enormously.¹⁰ As the term has been applied, a unit in history may be a Virginia plantation or a pioneer settlement or a still more limited topic, or it may be a vast and complex subject such as the westward movement in American history or the French Revolution, in which it is hard to detect as much unity as the definitions of units seem to suggest. The distinctions drawn by those who evolve theoretical distinctions between topics which are units and those which are not units do not always seem so clear in their examples¹¹ as in their theoretical statements. Many important developments of past or present life are hardly so simple that they can be explained on the basis of a single idea without danger of violence to truth. Nevertheless, a unitary plan of organization, if applied with discretion and with due regard for the findings of scholarship, furnishes a sound basis for dividing courses into division of convenient scope for classroom study, for bringing facts into intelligible relationships, and for concentrating on essentials rather than scattering over bits of miscellaneous information.

The result of the intensive study of a unit ought to be a relatively permanent contribution to the student's stock of ideas, understandings, or habits of thought that will persist long after many of the details have been forgotten.¹²

A unitary scheme of organization, according to some such principles as those that have been enumerated, is a decided advance over the study of isolated and unrelated facts, or of the summary treatment of more topics than can be treated adequately. The number of desirable units that might be selected in any social study, however, is very large, and a considerable amount of time is needed for the adequate treatment of each of them. Therefore any device that will make possible a satisfactory understanding of many possible units without the necessity of spending so much time on all of them would furnish a highly desirable means of avoiding some of the apparent conflict between adequacy of treatment and comprehensiveness of outline. In so far as possible units are subject to classification on the ground that they represent individual manifesta-

tions of the same concept or generalization, a type study method serves this purpose.

5. TYPE STUDIES

A hundred years ago Alexis de Tocqueville wrote as follows:

"The Deity does not regard the human race collectively. He surveys at one glance and severally all of the beings of whom mankind is composed; and he discerns in each man the resemblances which assimilate him to all his fellows, and the differences which distinguish him from them. God, therefore, stands in no need of general ideas; that is to say, he never feels the necessity of collecting a considerable number of analogous objects under the same form for greater convenience in thinking.

"Such, however, is not the case with man. If the human mind were to attempt to examine and pass a judgment on all the individual cases before it, the immensity of detail would soon lead it astray, and it would no longer see anything: in this strait, man has recourse to an imperfect but necessary expedient, which at once assists and demonstrates his weakness.

"Having superficially considered a certain number of objects, and remarked their resemblance, he assigns to them a common name, sets them apart, and proceeds onward.

"General ideas are no proof of the strength, but rather of the insufficiency, of the human intellect; for there are in nature no two beings exactly alike, no things precisely identical, nor any rules indiscriminately and alike applicable to several objects at once. The chief merit of general ideas is, that they enable the human mind to pass a rapid judgment on a great many objects at once; but, on the other hand, the notions they convey are never otherwise than incomplete, and they always cause the mind to lose as much in accuracy as it gains in comprehensiveness."¹⁸

Even the most learned of social scientists fall short of being gods; they can do no more than strive for divine omniscience in some limited field of investigation, without attaining it fully even there. Outside those narrow limits they must place much reliance upon general ideas, illuminated, perhaps, by more specific knowledge than the common herd possesses, but none the less incomplete. It is only in this way that a mere man, to say nothing of a mere boy, can deal with the staggering quantity of detail woven into the "seamless web too large for any human eye." It is for this reason that many educators have very properly stressed the importance of the formation of sound concepts in the process of education.

The type study is a short cut in the process of

forming generalizations. A learned scholar, investigating a series of cases which he ultimately assigns to the same classification, studies each one as exhaustively as possible, noting similarities and differences. When he has completed this study he can formulate a general statement that applies to them all. Later, as he encounters other similar cases, he applies his generalization to them. This is a means of interpretation and classification of these new cases, but at the same time the generalization is being checked and its basis is being extended; new variations may be noted, and these variations may make necessary a revision of the earlier statement. This is what a scientist does when he formulates a hypothesis from cases observed or experiments performed, and then checks it up by applying it to other cases or performing more experiments. This process may go on indefinitely. Unless a great deal of evidence has been considered the resulting classifications ought to be considered as provisional, and the generalizations formulated ought to be thought of as hypotheses rather than as laws.

The social studies, whatever their status as sciences, are not exact sciences in the same sense as mathematics or physics. Their nature is such that sound generalization is difficult, and the results formulated in general terms ought ordinarily to be considered only provisional. History, for example, never repeats itself exactly, but this does not always prevent useful classification and generalization and the formation of valuable concepts any more than the law of variation in biology prevents useful classification into species, orders, etc. What de Tocqueville said about the necessity for general ideas is doubtless as true as what he said about their limitations. If students make the most of their exposure to the social studies they carry away concepts as well as facts, and it is important that the concepts should be sound ones. So far as classifications or generalizations are possible in these studies it is possible to make a sound use of types in teaching them.

The type study presupposes that some competent scholar has investigated a number of cases, has classified them under the same head, and is prepared to define their common characteristics. There is not time for a pupil in the schools to go through this elaborate process often enough to get as many concepts as he needs. But merely to state the results of this investigation in the form of a concise definition or brief generalized statement naturally fails to make more than a verbal impression on the learner who is unfamiliar with the material upon which the statement is based. This tendency to state results, disregarding the material and the process by which understanding is arrived at, is one of the great defects in much

teaching and in much material prepared for school use—especially textbooks.¹⁴

If, however, a single case is selected which is typical in the sense that it illustrates all or most of the essential features of the class of cases to which it belongs, a detailed treatment of this example furnishes a key to the interpretation of the others. Others may then be noted more briefly, with special attention to their variations from the type. In this way a well-understood concept may be developed without taking time for the intensive treatment of more than one case, and without falling into the dangerous habit of generalizing upon a single instance.¹⁵

6. WHEREIN THE TYPE STUDY DIFFERS FROM OTHER UNITS

The discussion so far has indicated that the fully developed type study has two principal parts or stages: (1) the intensive, concrete study of the typical case; and (2) briefer comparisons with other cases, resulting in the formation of a concept. This second stage is the unique feature of the type study.

In selecting the type case for the first stage at least three criteria should be applied:

(a) The extent to which it shows the essential characteristics of the class of cases it represents.

(b) The intrinsic importance of the facts or information studied in connection with it. Some widespread and important phenomena may be best represented by examples having little significance except in their representative capacity, but when a case can be found which is both representative and intrinsically important it is better to get both sets of values at the same time.

(c) Relation to the learning process. This involves the questions of the extent to which the ideas and materials can be made comprehensible to the pupils for whom they are intended in the time available, how they relate to these pupils' previous experience or knowledge, and whether they are well calculated to arouse interest.

A fourth criterion that must often be considered involves the question whether adequate detailed illustrative material is available for the concrete presentation of the subject in all its details. Material for this kind of treatment of a unit is often not to be found even in the larger histories, and sometimes it can be located only by laborious search among the sources, if at all.

The first stage of the type study is a unit as this term has been defined, and in preparing the material for presentation to pupils, and in teaching it, the same rules apply that apply to the effective use of any unit. There is the central organizing idea, or set of related ideas, about which the ma-

terial is organized. There is the same necessity for concrete illustration, for "enrichment" or "assimilative detail to give a sense of reality and a basis for real understanding, and to make a more permanent impression than can be obtained by any brief treatment. These assimilative details, except those that have some intrinsic importance, should be selected and presented with these purposes in view, rather than taught with the idea that they are necessarily to be retained on their own account.

The second stage, of comparison, distinguishes the type study from other kinds of units. The intensive study of the typical case has furnished a basis for interpretation of the typical features of other cases, which can now be understood if given a summary treatment. It is only when variations from the type bring in new ideas that have not been worked out in detail, that intensive treatment with concrete illustrations may be necessary. This use of the experience and knowledge gained in the first stage results in both economy of time and better understanding. The outcome of such studies, as has already been pointed out, should be, in addition to the facts remembered, the formation of concepts without the necessity of generalizing on single instances.

7. THE PROGRESSIVE BUILDING UP OF CONCEPTS

According to what might be called the normal type study procedure, the second stage follows immediately after the first. Often, however, these comparisons, or part of them, may profitably be postponed until new examples of the same idea are encountered at the points where they belong according to the general arrangement of the course. It is possible in this way to build up a concept by successive stages throughout a course or a curriculum. Similarly, successive type studies, each of which develops a limited concept, may, by continuing the process of comparison, furnish the basis for forming broader or more comprehensive concepts. This process ought not to be limited by any set formula. It can go on indefinitely, as new cases are encountered and classified. New units will contain ideas related to old ones. Connecting and comparing the new with the old provides throughout this kind of instruction both a means of interpreting the new and an excellent means of review—a means of fixing and retaining the essentials of what has already been studied—as well as an enlargement of old ideas by looking at them from new angles. This is more effective than review by mere repetition.

The way in which concepts may be built up progressively and enlarged throughout a course can be best illustrated by an example—e.g., concepts relating to representative government in the colonial and revolutionary periods of United States

history. It should be noted in connection with this outline that most of the units mentioned include more than a discussion of their relation to representative government. The New England town, for example, is studied as a political, religion, social, and economic unit, and its characteristics relating to representative government constitute only one phase of this study. Each of the units mentioned, however, includes some part relating to this subject, and these parts may profitably be compared to develop certain concepts. Other phases of these units may be compared similarly to build up other concepts. Of course this outline is intended to be merely suggestive rather than complete or final.

1. Type study unit on the New England town
 - First stage. Study of a town in Massachusetts, select one as nearly typical as possible. This includes:
 - The town meeting, a primary assembly.
 - Appearance of select men and other officials.
 - The town as a unit of representation in the general assembly of the colony.
 - Second stage. Comparison of the town studied in detail with other towns (a) in Massachusetts and (b) elsewhere in New England.
 - Result. Formation of a concept or set of concepts relating to representative government in the New England towns of the period studied.
2. Type study unit on a New England colony
 - First stage. Early development of the Massachusetts Bay colony. Includes:
 - The government of the colony: the General Assembly: Relation to the towns.
 - Second stage. Compare with other colonial governments in New England.
 - Result. Concept of representative government in New England colonial governments.
 - Results of (1) and (2). Concept of the whole representative system in the New England colonies, in both local and central aspects.
3. Type study unit on the Southern plantation system
 - First stage. A typical tidewater plantation in Virginia.
 - Second stage. Comparisons with other tidewater plantations in Virginia and other Southern colonies, and with plantations in the Piedmont area.
 - Result. Concept of the Southern plantation system, including the part played by leading planters in parish, county, and colony government.
4. Type study unit on a southern colony
 - First stage. Early development of Virginia. Included government of the colony.
 - Second stage. Compare Virginia with other Southern colonies.
 - Result. Concept of representative government in Southern colonies.
5. Further comparisons
 - Compare New England and Southern representative institutions.
 - Compare these with representative institutions in the middle colonies, which may be treated more briefly because they are to a large extent combinations of elements found in New England or the South.
6. Type study unit on the colonial governor and his assembly
 - First stage. Study of a royal governor and his struggles with his assembly, e.g. Dinwiddie during the French and Indian War. (This might be included in (4) or it might be taken up in connection with the French and Indian War.)
 - Second stage. Compare with the similar quarrels between governors and assemblies in other provinces.
 - Result. Concepts relating to the practical working of representative government in the provinces.
7. Type study unit on state governments in the Revolutionary period

First stage. Study in some detail of one state government, or perhaps of two or three representative constitutions, e.g. Virginia, New York, Massachusetts. Since these governments were based largely upon colonial precedents, this material connects naturally with the preceding units, and less time is needed than if they studied out of this connection.

Second stage. Comparisons with other state governments.

Result. Concept of representative government in states of the Revolutionary period. Enlarged concept of representative government generally.

8. Unit on the government of the United States, 1776-1779, and the Constitution
 - a) The Continental Congress
 - b) The Confederation
 - c) The formation and adoption of the Constitution.

In discussing the precedents and background of the federal constitution, material from all or most of the preceding units will be useful. The concepts formed from the study of these units simplify the study of the more complex federal system worked out in 1787. At the same time this study of precedents is a review through comparison which helps to fix the earlier concepts as well as to enlarge still further the concept of representative government already formed.

The study of the Constitution of the United States is a unit, but it is doubtful whether the attempt ought to be made to make a type study of it, and, if this is tried, where and to what extent it ought to be done. With mature students profitable comparisons can be made with the government of England and other centralized states, and with other federal systems, such as those in Germany, Canada, and the South American republics. For elementary grades this is probably too difficult. Perhaps it ought not to be tried below the senior high school or college levels. It is as important to avoid unsound comparisons and generalizations which will not stand the tests of scholarship as it is to emphasize them when they are sound and enlightening. It is hardly necessary to illustrate further by showing points where the concepts built up in these units can be applied and enlarged in the period after 1789.

To obtain a maximum degree of progressive concept building of the kind here suggested, it is necessary to have a carefully thought out and integrated curriculum which has been constructed with this idea in mind.

8. CORRELATION

A unit may belong primarily to history, government, economics, or geography because its main theme is so classified or because the emphasis in treatment rests upon the point of view of one of these disciplines. In the detailed treatment of this unit, however, material from any source, regardless of subject matter classifications, should be used if it serves a useful purpose in explaining or clarifying

ing the topic or any essential part of it. For example, "The Panama Canal" may be studied as a unit in either history or geography. Any complete treatment of the topic involves both. Incidentally material that might be classified as belonging to various other subjects—bacteriology or sanitation, engineering, government, arithmetic, etc.—is needed to round out the understanding of what happened while the problem of building the canal was being solved. The basis for inclusion or exclusion of material, therefore, should be, not whether a fact belongs primarily to one or the other of the separate "disciplines" or organized bodies of subject matter, but whether it contributes to the understanding of the concept involved in the main topic or any of its parts.

This results in a great deal of correlation of materials from the separate subjects of the social studies, and also from other studies, within each unit. This is of the kind that Professor Henry Johnson calls the "incidental correlation which springs from a broad view of any subject and is suggested for the illumination of the subject itself," rather than "the systematic correlation which seeks in varying degrees to unify the curriculum."¹⁶ If the units are grouped into courses according to their relation to the separate "disciplines" of the social studies, the correlation among these subjects is mainly of the "incidental" type; if the units are grouped according to some other scheme disregarding the boundaries of the separate subjects, the course might be called a unified or fusion course. As has already been suggested, this does not make it certain that the parts of the fusion or unified course will be in any closer relationship to each other than they are under the former arrangement, nor that fusion or unification schemes necessarily involve more real correlation, either incidental or systematic, than does the arrangement of units in groups determined by the nature of the separate disciplines.

9. THE USE OF TYPE STUDIES AT VARIOUS GRADE LEVELS

It is important that units selected for use at a given grade level should, in addition to fitting into the general arrangement of courses in the curriculum, be suitable for use at that level. The same considerations that apply to other units apply to the first stage of the type study. At lower grade levels children have relatively little experience and knowledge with which to interpret new ideas, and relatively few well-formed concepts. To say to a student of the history of political ideas that the Declaration of Independence summarizes the contract theory of government is sufficient because it connects with knowledge that he already possesses;

a senior high school student needs considerable explanation of this statement; it can doubtless be made clear to pupils in the intermediate grades by working out sufficient illustrations that relate to their more limited experience, but this takes much more time. The younger children need more concrete illustrations and explanations than they ought to need to understand the same things when they are older. Consequently, more time must be devoted to a given topic in the lower grade levels. Conversely, a more difficult topic may be taught at a higher level in no more time than a simpler one takes with younger pupils. The allocation of many topics probably ought to be determined according to economy of time; they could be taught adequately at great length at a lower level, but if they can be dispensed with there they can be taught more economically when the pupils are more mature.

Adequate treatment prevents the use of very many large units in the course of a year, and no more should be undertaken than can be taught effectively. If there is truth in what has been said about the necessity for more detailed and concrete material in the lower grades, it follows that fewer units, or more limited ones, must be used there. On the other hand, it has been asserted that the span of attention and of interest of young children is less than that of older ones, and that in the lower grades there ought to be shorter units and more of them in a year's work.¹⁷ This argues for very simple and limited units in the lower grades. The experience of some who have used large units in the intermediate grades seem to show that interest and attention are more likely to flag if the material studied is incomprehensible than if time is taken to clarify it. Condensation and complexity, rather than mere length, are the things most to be avoided.

As children acquire a larger apperceptive basis for understanding new materials they can cover more ground in a given length of time; their span of attention and their ability to understand and to keep in mind the relations of the parts of a more complicated whole have grown; and larger and more difficult topics are in order. The relationship between the two stages of the type study tends to shift accordingly. In the lower grades the necessity for much assimilative detail usually makes the first stage by far the bulkier part of the study. Here the comparisons of the second stage ought not to be carried to the point of much complexity. With increasing ability to comprehend new facts without lengthy explanations or illustrations, the first stage tends to contract. Simultaneously, with increasing ability to understand relationships, the second stage can be expanded.

In adjusting type studies to the changing needs and conditions of intellectual growth, two alterna-

tive methods of progression are possible. One is to decrease the first stage relative to the second until, at perhaps senior high school or junior college levels, something like the kind of course now frequently given results. The other is to continue type studies or other large units with still more intensive treatment and increasing emphasis on methods of research, evaluation of evidence, and similar problems, and with increasing scope to the relationships developed in the second stage of the type studies. It is possible to combine these methods by including in the curriculum both extensive "general" courses and intensive courses on special subjects, as is often done in colleges and universities. It is important, however, to emphasize the need of continuing in the upper grades to study something thoroughly. There is great danger that interest will play out if pupils in these grades who have learned to go below the surface of their studies are forced to cram too much superficial information into too brief a space.

10. LIMITATIONS UPON THE USE OF TYPES

A large part of intellectual education consists of the development of concepts based on the results of sound scholarship. The type study is an effective means to accomplish this end. Many phenomena in the social studies, however, are important but unique. In some cases even the most competent scholars are not prepared to draw generalizations from them. In other cases the generalizations that might be made are beyond the grasp of any but the most mature minds. Some of the unique cases are of great significance for the understanding of our civilization. They ought to be studied for their own sake whether they are typical of anything else or not. The method of presentation of such a unit can be that of the first stage of a type study, or of any other unit. There should be no attempt to generalize through comparison when it cannot be done on the basis of sound scholarship; in fact, pointing out the danger of superficial comparison and generalization is an important item in method in the social studies. A method, or any part of it, is only a means to an end, and it should be applied only when its use is conducive to that end. Too much enthusiasm for any one sound method may easily lead to its use in ways that reduce it to absurdity.

11. METHODS OF TEACHING TYPE STUDIES

It is not easy to define the term "method" in teaching. To limit its meaning to the devices and appliances used to meet situations that arise in the classroom gives it far too limited a scope. Selection and organization of materials for teaching may properly be considered as much a part of

method as the devices of a clever teacher in imparting these materials to pupils, and in many respects the most important part.

It has been asserted, in comparing the type study method as advocated by C. A. McMurry with the project method as advocated by W. H. Kilpatrick, that the type study method is mainly a method of organizing material, while the project method is primarily a method of classroom teaching; moreover, that the type study method is based on the idea that a curriculum of suitable materials should be selected for children by those who know what is good for them, while the project method is based upon the idea of letting the child select his own materials,¹⁸ and that therefore the one relates principally to subject matter, while the other relates to teaching and learning. It is true that the type study plan as it had actually been worked out has been based upon the idea of conveying to children as much as possible of our cultural heritage and of our civilization, rather than upon the idea of the child centered school. There is much to be said, however, in favor of the proposition that the preparation of materials suitable for use in the schools, whether for reading by the pupils or for oral presentation by the teacher, is as much a phase of the art of teaching as are any of the activities that go on in the classroom. In this sense, the problem of preparing units or type studies for school use is properly speaking a problem of teaching method.

In this connection C. A. McMurry has made a distinction between what he calls "major method" and "minor method." The major method consists of the selection and organization of materials, and the suitable presentation of these materials; the minor method consists of classroom procedures and devices of all kinds which contribute to the effective application of learning processes to the materials thus provided. Both require a high degree of teaching skill. There may be a relatively fixed curriculum and a detailed organization of subject matter, but there will still be plenty of scope for the use of a variety of classroom methods, and for ingenuity and initiative on the part of the teacher in selecting and using the methods best adapted to various groups and individuals under a variety of circumstances.

Major method is beyond the capacity of most teachers. Few of them have the scholarly training, the skill, or the time, to select and organize their materials without assistance. This is a job for scholars, educators, and specialists in the art of writing for this particular purpose. When suitable material has been prepared, it is better for most teachers to spend their available time in mastering it and preparing for its use in the classroom, than

to scramble for material which they have neither time nor capacity to work up into form appropriate for classroom use. This does not mean that the teacher should not have all the scholarship and critical and organizing capacity possible. It is merely a recognition of the circumstances in which most teachers find themselves, and of the inherent difficulty of the task.

In many cases it is desirable to have a great enough variety of units prepared so that the teacher can select from among them those most appropriate to a given group of children or a locality. If the teacher can work out units especially adapted to the experience of the class, so much the better. A set curriculum ought to be modified so as to avoid teaching a group of colored children in the South about their ancestors in Europe. But the average teacher needs to be relieved of the greater part of the burden of providing something to teach, and can provide better materials where they are needed if the demands are not too great. A completely prepared curriculum ought to be considered a guide to be followed until a better way is discovered rather than a mandatory course from which no deviation is possible. The teacher's part in connection with major method is to master what has already been worked out and to add whatever his own knowledge supplies. He is still free to adapt the details of minor method to variations in classes or individuals.

There is no reason why any effective procedure or technique which is useful in the teaching of any unit might not be applied to the first stage of a type study. If a Morrison mastery formula, a contract plan, or a socialized recitation is an effective method of teaching, it may be used as effectively in the first stage of a type study as in any unit of similar scope. Type studies may be taught in an ordinary classroom or in a historical laboratory; if a laboratory method has advantages when other methods of teaching the social studies are used, it doubtless retains them with a type study method. In the series of lessons or the period of time devoted to the type study unit, projects and activities of all kinds, drills, reviews, etc., may be used whenever they are helpful. Here, again, the important point to keep in mind is that any method, technique, or procedure is only a means to an end, to be discarded in favor of a better one whenever a better one is available.

While the use of the type study idea as such does not necessarily require any prescribed method of classroom procedure, certain methods have been associated with it in practice, and these methods, used especially in the intermediate or lower junior high school grades, have doubtless been largely responsible for its successful use under actual

teaching conditions. Certain outstanding features in these methods are indicated in what follows.

1. The teacher should master the whole unit in all its bearings before beginning to teach it. This, in a sense, is a problem of "major method," whether the teacher works up the study himself or studies one prepared by someone else. The planning of the work from day to day, the pointing out of relationships, the selection of the best methods of arousing the interest of the pupils in the unit, of developing relevant pupil activities, etc., are, if they are to be guided intelligently, dependent upon this previous preparation of the whole unit.

2. Material which does not come to the children through direct experience may be conveyed to them either through oral presentation by the teacher, or through reading. If suitable reading material, adapted to the grade being taught, is not available, oral presentation by the teacher is the alternative at any grade level. Even if there is reading matter available, there is much to be said in favor of oral presentation in the lower grades. In the fourth or fifth grade, the lowest levels at which complete and elaborate type studies have ordinarily been used, it seems probable that the ability of the pupils to understand the spoken word, and to think, outruns their ability to read. Their intellectual capacity may be cramped if it is confined entirely within the limits of their reading ability. In general it is better to have relatively more oral presentation at lower levels. The proportion in a given case may be determined partly by the reading ability of the pupils and partly by the skill of the teacher in oral presentation; in any case this is a skill which the teacher should cultivate.

3. In the first stage of the type study, elaborate and concrete treatment is emphasized. Definite facts to illustrate a point or to suggest a problem should come first. The ideas derived from them become intelligible when connected with these concrete illustrations. Facts, figures, maps, diagrams, pictures, and any other objects or other materials available should be selected and arranged to convey the ideas needed for the understanding of the unit and its related parts. This means that a great deal of "enrichment" or "assimilative" material is needed, much of which has little if any intrinsic importance, but which is indispensable in making the subject intelligible and in conveying an impression of reality.¹⁹ These statements apply to both major and minor methods. The selection of the illustrative facts that will be most appropriate depends upon the experience and the apperceptive background of the pupils.

4. Apperception: connecting the child's experience with the thing to be taught.

If the materials given to pupils are to be made

comprehensible to them, there must be constant appeals to their experience and a relating of this experience to what is being learned. If actual experience is lacking and cannot be provided, vicarious experience can be obtained through reading or oral presentation stated in terms of actual experience. The knowledge so acquired may, in turn, be used to interpret other knowledge to be acquired. In all of these cases the process is one of interpreting the unknown in terms of the unknown.

The whole first stage of a type study may be considered as an enlargement of experience or knowledge which is to be applied to the apperceptive interpretation of other similar cases when the second stage is reached. The concepts formed as a result of this process may in turn be used to interpret and simplify the treatment of more comprehensive concepts encountered later, as in the illustration relating to representative government given above.

The appeal to experience and the apperceptive use of knowledge are important in both major and minor methods. The writer of materials for a given grade level needs to know not only the vocabulary to be expected of the pupils to be found there, but also the average amount of experience and of understood concepts. He can then determine what he can explain and what illustrative matter will be effective. There is always, however, a great variation among groups and individuals, and the teacher in the classroom must supply what is lacking in the prepared material to meet these variations.

5. Problems. The unit, whether typical or unique, ordinarily involves a problem or a group of related problems. It is important to get the problem stated and placed clearly before the pupils. A problem, however, does not grow in a vacuum, but develops out of conditions that give rise to it. Its solution is conditioned by the facts of this situation. The first thing to do, therefore, is to make sure that the pupils have before them the facts that create the problem and that condition the solution. The problem can then be formulated under the guidance of the teacher and the pupils can propose solutions. They are then ready to learn what was done toward solving it under the actual conditions that prevailed when the problem appeared in adult life.

At almost every step in the development of a major problem, subsidiary problems appear, growing out of the material studied. These can be stated and worked out as in the case of the main problem. In this way the type study or other unit becomes "a problem and a mother of problems," involving at almost every turn a problem-solving method of instruction.²⁰

The use of a problem-solving method may be en-

couraged in several ways: (1) In preparing material for school use, conditions out of which problems arise should be stated before telling the solutions. (2) The teacher is conducting classroom discussion can call attention to the facts that suggest problems, and encourage thought about their solutions. (3) By these means, and by any others available, pupils can be encouraged to look for problems of their own, to formulate them, and to work out their own solutions. The methods used in the first and second of these items, in which the activity and direction are to a great extent the teacher's, are probably important means of attaining the situation suggested in the third item, where the activity is mainly the pupil's. An ultimate aim should be to build up in pupils a habit of looking for problems, of finding and examining the facts relating to them, and of working out their own solutions. The imitative tendencies of children, and perhaps of most people who are no longer children, suggest that the best method of approach is to show them how to solve problems before expecting them to solve others more or less independently.

6. Projects and activities. This problem solving method suggests all sorts of construction projects and activities that may be carried on by individuals or groups—building a model of the Panama canal or of a canal lock, constructing model houses for an early New England town and laying out a model of the town to show the land holdings, making maps and pictures, dramatization, making costumes, etc. Some of these activities can be carried on in connection with work in manual training, home economics, or art. Some of them can be suggested by the teacher. Many will be suggested by the pupils if they get the idea that such activities are in order. There is danger that many of these projects will run off at irrelevant tangents unless the teacher guides them skillfully; the problem is how to keep them in proper relation to the subject without too much suppression of spontaneous enthusiasm. There is also danger of failing to attain the desired result because enthusiasm outruns scholarship. Distinctions ought to be made clear between certain original or modernistic styles of alleged illustration and the actual facts or appearance of historical, geographical, and natural phenomena; between a twelfth century castle as it appears in some illustrations and moving pictures and a twelfth century castle as reconstructed from authentic remains and documents. Projects and activities undertaken in connection with any unit ought to be worked out accurately, to be relevant to that unit, and to contribute something definite toward understanding it and making it real in the minds of the pupils.

7. Drills and reviews. Drills on essential facts,

figures, dates, etc., are as desirable a means of fixing them in the memory if a unitary organization is used as in any other organization. In this connection, however, it is important to distinguish between enrichment or assimilative material which has little intrinsic or permanent value, and facts or ideas that do have such value. Moreover, formal drill is less needed on points which have been treated intensively enough to make a more permanent impression than is left by a more cursory treatment.

A more significant type of review than mere repetition is that which recalls old knowledge to interpret new material. By this process old knowledge is viewed from a new angle and at the same time the new knowledge is interpreted by the old.

¹ See Mitchell, Morris Randolph, *A Critical Evaluation of the Type Study Plan as an Organizing Principle for Texts in American History* (George Peabody College for Teachers Contributions to Education, No. 33) Nashville, Tenn., 1926, p. 45.

Dr. John Dewey, in criticising the paucity of content in the work of many of the "new" schools, writes that "the rebellion against formal studies and lessons can be effectively completed only through the development of a new subject matter, as well organized as the old . . . but having an intimate and developing relation to the experience of the school. . . . And this subject matter can be provided in a way which will obtain ordered and consecutive development of experience only by means of the thoughtful selection and organization of material by those having the broadest experience. . . ." John Dewey, "How Much Freedom in the New Schools," *New Republic*, Vol. 63, p. 205 (July 9, 1930).

Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick, when he writes that education is "demanded in unprecedented degree by the modern accumulation of useful thought" implies that it is the business of education to transfer some of this cultural heritage to the minds of those being educated. Although his point of view and his method are quite different from those advanced in this article, he seems to take the same view of this fundamental part of the problem. See W. H. Kilpatrick, *Education for a Changing Civilization*, New York, Macmillan, 1926, p. 15.

² Beard, Charles A., *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools* (Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part I), New York, Scribner, 1932, p. 3.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

⁴ Mitchell, *Critical Evaluation of the Type Study Plan*, p. 51.

⁵ Beard, *Charter of the Social Sciences*, p. 92.

The term "encyclopedic" has often been applied to the type of course that tries to include all the important facts without bringing them together in organic relationships—the opposite of the unitary course. It has been pointed out, however, that an encyclopedia adopts the unitary principle of relating all the information pertinent to each topic under the appropriate heading.

⁶ Hill, Howard C., and Weaver, Robert B., "A Unitary Course in U. S. History for Junior High School," *School Review*, Vol. 37, p. 257 (April, 1929).

This statement is in accord with Henry C. Morrison's idea of a "Learning unit," which he defines in his own technical language as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality." Morrison, Henry C., *The Practice of Teaching in*

the Secondary School, University of Chicago Press, revised ed., 1931, pp. 24, 25. The "adaptation" is a permanent result of study which, according to Morrison, makes a permanent modification in the personality in its reaction toward the thing learned. *Ibid.*, 20-23. He distinguishes between the "learning products" or adaptations and the "assimilative" experience or materials which bring about this adaptation—the same distinction which Hill and Weaver have expressed in less technical terms.

⁷ See, e.g., Charles A. McMurry and Frank McMurry, *Method of the Recitation*, New York, Macmillan, 1903, p. 61; Charles A. McMurry, *Course of Study in the Eight Grades*, Vol. I, New York, Macmillan, 1906, pp. 43, 44; Charles A. McMurry, *Method of Handling Larger Types as Large Units of Study* (George Peabody College for Teachers, Type Studies and Lesson Plans, Vol. III, No. 1, Nashville, Tenn., Oct., 1917), p. 19.

⁸ These ideas are developed most fully in Charles A. McMurry, *Teaching by Projects*, New York, Macmillan, 1920.

I can see no reason why this use of the word "project" is not as reasonable and satisfactory as other pedagogical uses of the term. However, to avoid confusion, the terms "project" and "project method" will be used in the remainder of this discussion, unless otherwise indicated, to designate the kind of project advocated by W. H. Kilpatrick and his followers.

⁹ See William C. Ruediger, "The Learning Unit," *School Review*, Vol. 40, pp. 176 ff. (March, 1932).

¹⁰ See Morrison on the French Revolution as a unit, *Practice of Teaching* (1931), pp. 28, 29, 111, 112.

¹¹ Cf. Morrison's idea of an "adaptation" and of "assimilative" material, *above*, Note 7.

¹² Tocqueville, Alexis de, *Democracy in America*, tr. by Henry Reeve, ed. by Francis Bowen, 2 Vols., Boston, 1876, Vol. II, p. 14.

¹³ M. R. Mitchell, discussing the type study plan "as psychological approach to the logical," says that the traditional textbooks in history, whether based on a chronological or a topical-period basis, have arranged and treated their material in a way which "regards primarily the results of learning, not the process of learning. The type study plan also provides for order; it follows a system of procedure which has been logically arrived at. In this case, however, the finished product of study has been subordinated to the process of study. So that the point at issue [in distinguishing between logical and psychological methods] is not whether a particular method consistently carries out a predetermined arrangement but whether this arrangement parallels the process or the product of learning." Mitchell, *Critical Evaluation of the Type Study Plan*, p. 51.

¹⁴ H. C. Morrison writes: "A unit in history may be, frequently is, the French Revolution. The objective here is an adaptation, a new attitude toward the past, described perhaps as a conviction of the nature and inevitable consequences of a long period of personal government. . . ." H. C. Morrison, *Practice of Teaching* (1931), p. 28.

The "adaptation" here suggested seems to be in the nature of a generalization based upon a single example. Historical scholars would hesitate to make the French Revolution so simple or to generalize upon it. If a generalization is possible, and if this is the objective of the study, it would be better to expand the unit into a type study by comparing it briefly with other revolutions. This, after all, may be what the writer had in mind without having worked out a procedure for this purpose.

¹⁵ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History*, p. 389.

¹⁶ See Mitchell, *Critical Evaluation of the Type Study Plan*, p. 69.

¹⁷ Mitchell, *Critical Evaluation of the Type Study Plan*, pp. 45, 46.

¹⁸ See Johnson, *Teaching of History*, pp. 218, 219; McMurry, *Teaching by Projects*, pp. 63, 64, 223, 229, 230, 242, 243; Morrison, *Practice of Teaching* (1931), pp. 27, 28.

¹⁹ McMurry, *Teaching by Projects*, p. 12.

Geography Among the Social Studies in Secondary Education

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In recent years, educational geography has been passing through significant changes in content and objectives, changes which place it more and more nearly within the circle of the social studies. Like psychology, social biology, and anthropology, geography is truly a border field, for it investigates both physical and social phenomena. Concerned traditionally with a study of the surface of the earth from the viewpoint of human occupancy and use, it must give attention to two different groups of features in the landscape—the non-human or natural elements and the man-made elements. A focus of attention on man and his works, as demanded by a place in the program of social studies, logically crowds the physical aspects of the subject to the periphery. Though in harmony with the general trend of educational geography during the last thirty years, and with the major emphasis in scientific geography in America during the same period, this anthropocentric orientation is quite naturally disliked by many specialists in physical geography, nor are its logical base and its consequences in curricular revision and teacher training generally understood by teachers of geography and the other social studies. We are concerned here, not with the outlook of the physical geographer, but with the educational aspects of this age-old subject as a member of the group of social studies.

EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF GEOGRAPHY

As an educational tool, geography with an anthropocentric orientation, appears to function more effectively in the realization of the objectives of the social than of the physical studies.¹ It is difficult to secure the benefits that come from mathematical, observational, or experimental studies. Although geographical research is fundamentally observational and statistical, and even experimentation is not excluded, geography in the schools is none of these. The student finds little use for exact measurement, as in physics, or for manipulation of numerical symbols, as in mathematics, or for controlled experimentation, as in chemistry; he can see only a very small part of the earth's surface, and though he pores over maps, they are abstractions, not the reality with which he is concerned. On the other hand, he finds in his

geographical study much that is akin to his work in history, civics, sociology, and economics, and, if a college student, in anthropology and psychology.

We may note, in the first place, similarities in the character of the objects studied and in methods of approach. (1) The social studies deal with man and man-made conditions; geography, in particular, deals with man and his visible works as distributed over the earth. (2) The materials handled are not static but ever changing. Development is evident. The historian may be chiefly concerned with the development of human institutions and societies, the geographer with the evolution of the cultural landscape, with *man's transformation of the natural earth into the human scene of today*. Even though we grant, with some geographers, that their subject is concerned almost exclusively with the present, the necessity for recognizing the transitory character of the phenomena studied, and the need for placing them in a sequence with what has gone before are none the less urgent. The geography of the present is one scene in a pageant as old as mankind. (3) The problems met in the social studies are highly complex. One must always handle many conditions, a veritable association of facts, no one of which can be very effectively isolated for study, certainly not by the usual laboratory methods. And if an attempt is made to find out the why of things, it is seldom that a given result can be traced to one and only one cause. Though true in varying degree of each of the social studies, this indivisibility of the subject matter is particularly characteristic, it would seem, of history and regional geography. (4) The student of social sciences must contemplate his field of study at long range, separated from it by distance or by time, perhaps by both. Only a meager part of it can be brought under direct observation (not necessarily true of research). (5) All of the group deal more or less directly with specific parts of the earth's surface. The study of countries and regions is traditional in history and civics as well as in geography, and has come more recently to the fore in sociology and economics. (6) In comparison to the usual procedure in the physical sciences, little use is made of "laws" or "principles." This lack of emphasis on clear-cut if not dogmatic generalization rests, in part, on the changing char-

acter of the objects studied, on their occurrence in indivisible complexes, and on the difficulty of controlled experiment. Accurate description rather than early generalization is quite generally the accepted procedure. (7) The social studies, finally, are expected to contribute to the solution of social problems. It seems fair to say that many if not most of the specialists in each of the social studies hope that their work will result in some advancement in human welfare. Social engineering is the aim. In this task of guiding mankind into a more satisfactory way of life, the distinctive rôle of geography appears to be that of furnishing much needed factual data and a distinctive point of view, rather than that of formulating plans for the future.

EDUCATIONAL AIMS OF GEOGRAPHY

These similarities in content and method of study are reflected in the educational aims held in common by teachers of the social studies. We may take as representative the declaration by the Joint Commission (membership selected from specialists in history, economics, political science, sociology, and geography) that "their purpose is to enable our youth to realize what it means to live in society, to appreciate how people have lived and do live together, and to understand the conditions essential to living together well; to the end that our youth may develop such abilities, inclinations, and ideals as may qualify them to take an intelligent and effective part in an evolving society."² Beard discusses the problem at length in *A Charter for the Social Sciences*; his position is summarized, though somewhat abstractly, in the statement that "any social science worthy of the name must objectify itself in the development and improvement of individuals, institutions, human relations, and material arrangements already in course of unfolding in the United States."³ Ellis states in a more concrete way that "the dominant ideal among social studies is to equip each citizen with as good an understanding of modern civilization as he is able to master, and with such ideals and attitudes as normally grow out of such understanding,"⁴ and James Harvey Robinson is certain that the purpose of such studies is "to help us to understand ourselves and our fellows and the problems and prospects of mankind."⁵

In assisting our youth to an understanding of modern civilization, geography has at least two tasks to perform, tasks not undertaken as major objectives by the other members of the group. (1) Geography describes the natural environment of specific portions of the earth's surface and the uses to which these areas are being put, and explains, in so far as possible, why they are being used as they

are.⁶ Such a view of distant areas should, if sympathetically taught, contribute to an appreciation of the problems, handicaps, and needs of other peoples. For the home area—county, state, and nation—here are information and a point of view essential to sound regional planning, and therefore useful to citizens-in-the-making, all of whom are potential regional planners for the political unit in which they will exercise their right to citizenship.⁷ (2) Geography ever keeps in mind the larger whole of which the individual feature or region is but a part—the entire earth's surface—and strives to place all objects and areas studied in a present-day world framework. Three kinds of world patterns are constructed: physical patterns, involving mineral resources, climate, etc.; cultural patterns, such as the world distribution of population, of roads, of trade, of cultivated land; and regional patterns, showing the mozaic of unit areas (Corn Belt, Cotton Belt, Argentine Pampa, Lower Rhine Industrial Region and so on) which fit together to form the face of the earth. Thus, for the student, the domestic scene is "firmly fitted into the world scene," and the interdependence of nations is understood as a tremendously important and, at the same time, inescapable condition of the modern world.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY NOT IGNORED

In stressing the human aspects of regional and world-wide studies—in fitting geography into a program of social studies—the physical environment need not, in fact *must* not be ignored. Here, indeed, is one of the principal contributions to the range of vision of the social studies—a critical evaluation of the findings of physical geographers, and other students of the physical earth, such as geologists and botanists, in their social implications. Nor can it be left out of human geography for, in studying the earth from the viewpoint of human occupation and use, we must know *what* is being used—the physical milieu. Our study of physical geography must not be for its own sake, however, but for the light it throws on the human use, past, present and potential, of the area studied. It must not be taught to illustrate certain principles of physics, chemistry, and biology, but to show the utility of specific types of environment or specific parts of the earth for residences, roadways, urban sites, power production, and so on. Thus it is not the physical processes by which land forms, minerals, and other elements of the natural environment came into being but their habitat or *use* qualities which become of supreme importance—it is not the reasons for the occurrence of the monsoon rains of India, or the coal basins of Scotland, which challenge us, but the conditions for

human living which they provide. The processes involved in the development of the physical earth are indeed vital and should be taught in so far as they give clarity, order, and system to our concepts of the land as a suitable home for man, but to do more is to shift the center of attention away from man and away from the objectives of the social studies.

FUSION NOT IMPLIED

A place in a program of social studies does not imply that geography must be fused with history, sociology, economics, and civics in a composite course. Conceivably, coördination toward a common goal is possible without the complete loss of that individuality which each of these fields of knowledge possesses. Subject matter specialists—and geographers are no exceptions—naturally feel that fusion to the point of obscuring the major factual outlines and the viewpoints of their respective fields means a distinct loss. On the other hand, it is possible that economy in teaching and the need for preserving *whole* views of the civilization within which we hope to orient the student, may dictate a certain amount of fusion, and surely there is a sound demand for very close coördination.

The happiest solution to this problem lies, it would seem, in an organization of the social studies on an areal or regional basis, with geographical, social, historical, political, and economic studies of a given portion of the inhabited earth (region, country, state, or continent) being offered to our youth in such order that the various pieces can be fitted together to give a clear conception of what each major part of the world is like. They should visualize each division as a real place, inhabited by people who work and play, and laugh and sorrow much as we; a people faced with the all important problem of working out a happy adjustment to their human and non-human environments. Whether history, or geography, or socio-economics be used as the cementing material, the matrix in which the other studies are set, is a question which seems to me to be less fundamental, provided agreement can be reached on this first consideration—that the great regional entities, as Northwest Europe, the Orient, etc., should be preserved. There is much to be said, however, for making either geography or history serve as a background—perhaps both, with geography in the lower grades and early junior high and history in the upper junior and senior high school. It is well to remember, moreover, that the final test of an organized scheme is not “where does instruction begin,” however important that may be, but “what sum of experiences have been lived through before its close,” and surely none would care to omit the

major educative experiences offered by each of the social studies.

TEACHER PREPARATION

If coöperation in a program of social studies implies need for more careful coördination in teaching, it demands just as insistently that teachers be prepared with that need in mind. Though the teacher may “major” in history, or geography, or economics, or sociology, or political science, there must be a firm grasp of each of the others, its point of view and its content, “in order that the teacher may be fully conscious of the part which each is to play in the complete and final program.”²⁸ Even if the social studies be arranged in tandem, as geography in the seventh, history in the eighth, and civics in the ninth grade, and if the work of the teacher be confined to one grade, this training seems necessary for proper integration of the component parts of the curriculum. If, as is commonly the case, the teacher’s activities range over two or more grades, or if the subjects are fused together instead of being arranged in a series, it is all the more imperative that the teacher possess wide training. There appears no escape from this conclusion. If it means a conscious effort on the part of students of history to know what modern geography is doing, it also means that the geography “major” must know some history, and that neither should neglect economics, sociology, or political science. The teacher is indeed a critical factor in this coöperation of the social studies toward the execution of a unified educational program. The mosaic of social studies which he fits together to form a picture of modern civilization can scarcely be complete or true to life if he does not know how to handle the pieces individually or how to place them in their true relation to one another.

In the elementary grades, certainly in the first three or possibly four, geography may well be undifferentiated from nature study on the one hand, and on the other, from the study of mankind. In the upper elementary grades and in the secondary school (through junior college), geography would appear to have an important work to do as a member of the group of social studies. In functioning as a social study, it appears unnecessary, even unwise, to disregard physical geography or to lose identity through complete fusion with other subjects in a single social science amalgam, but it is imperative that there be careful coördination of the work of the different subjects toward a common goal, and that the teachers charged with the success of the program be trained in the point of view and elementary content of each of the social studies.

¹ In the preceding discussion, courses in physical geography or physiography are excepted. Such courses can easily meet the needs of a physical science curriculum, provided there is opportunity for field and laboratory work.

² *Journal of Geography*, 22, 1923, 75.

³ Beard, Charles, *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, 1932, 56.

⁴ Ellis, Elmer: "A Basis for the Selection of Materials in Social Science Studies," *National Educational Association, Addresses and Proceedings*, 1930, 68.

⁵ Quoted in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 1923, 227.

⁶ All too commonly it is assumed that the non-human elements in the landscape are the sole objects of geographical description—indeed, the word "geography" is taken as

synonymous with "physical conditions." It is true that the geographer is charged with the task of synthesizing the findings of physical science in order to paint a picture of the land occupied, but he is just as much if not more concerned with describing and explaining the character of the features of human occupation.

⁷ Beard, in *A Charter for the Social Sciences* (p. 79), states that among the goals which the American nation seems to have set for itself is "the development of city, community, regional and state planning coordinated with national designs with a view of giving to all the people conditions for living and working that are worthy of the highest type of civilization."

⁸ Knowlton, Daniel, *History and the Other Social Sciences*, 1926, 189.

The Processes of Learning History in Middle Childhood

By MARY G. KELTY, Chicago

I. SHOULD THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE MIDDLE GRADES BE ORGANIZED AROUND "LIFE PROBLEMS?"

UNIFICATION IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

Before an examination of the problem of learning history can be attempted, a preliminary question needs consideration—namely, whether history should be taught as a separate subject or whether it should be organized around "problems." The learning process in the two cases may be quite different.

For many years teachers of the Social Studies have been considering the problem of whether or not history, geography, and civics should be unified, and instruction organized around vital social problems, instead of following school "subjects." The chief spokesman in favor of such a change has been Harold Rugg.

A carefully weighed statement of position in regard to this question has recently been presented in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association (Charles A. Beard's *Charter for the Social Sciences*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, pp. 20-21). Another critical evaluation of the claims of the separate subjects versus the unification and "large problem" plans appeared in *The First Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*. (McKinley Publishing Co., 1931, pp. 118-131.)¹

UNIFICATION IN THE MIDDLE GRADES: THE SOCIOLOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

The special question which we wish to consider in this paper, however, relates to the unification plan in the period of "middle childhood." Some years ago the unification program began to per-

meate downward into the work of the fourth, fifth and sixth grades. *The Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association* (1929) page 77, reported the per cent of schools offering the various subjects in the middle grades in 1929 as follows:

	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
History	54.6%	84.7%	90.9%
Social Studies	18.6%	19.6%	24.1%
Current History	A%	1.3%	2.0%

Overlapping was obvious, but nevertheless, either a trend toward unification, or a desire for unification, was apparent. An unpublished study by the writer, comparing courses of study published within the last five years shows a decided slowing-up in this tendency, but it still necessitates thoughtful consideration.

Examples of social study units, for fourth and fifth grades, which are organized around large "problems of present-day living," follow. They are selected from school systems distinctly above the average.

- Where Does Our Food Come From and What People are Working Together to Supply It? (Grade 4B)
- How People Live in the United States. (5th Grade)
- In What Ways are the People of the United States and Europe Inter-Related? (Grade 5B)
- To Know (our city) Present and Past. (Grade 4)
- To Understand the Dependence of (our city) upon the other Regions of the United States. (Grade 4)
- To Discover the Relationship between (our city) and Distant Lands. (Grade 4)
- Immigration into the United States. (Grade 5)

Are the Nations of Europe More or Less Interdependent today than They were during the Middle Ages? (Grade 5A)

An additional subject common in such courses of study is "Colonial Life,"² which purports to give at the same time (1) an understanding of colonial problems of living, and (2) an understanding of the New England of today. The two, however, are so completely different in their basic conditions that they cannot be taught together at the same time. The best that can be done is to view first the one and afterwards the other. The "Westward Movement" is another topic treated in the same manner. In fact, consideration of first geographical and then historical factors, or vice versa, seems to be the usual method of treatment.

Examination of the arguments advanced for such social study units shows that the arguments are primarily sociological in nature. They are expressed in terms of social welfare. For example, a sociological consideration often quoted is: "direct functional value in training for the activities of current living,"—in spite of the difficulty in determining what is functional.³

Another argument for such units of study is that in real life, knowledge is not divided into compartments, but is *one*. When, however, the student attempts to study facts together because they are related to each other, he finds himself forced to the conclusion that almost any fact can be shown to have some relation to others. The unity of all knowledge makes itself felt anew.⁴ Some basis for division becomes necessary for practical purposes and the lines, however drawn, are arbitrary.

Moreover, the courses quoted claim in many instances that they are dealing with the problems which children will find confronting them as adult citizens. In consideration of this claim the *Report of the Commission on the Social Studies*⁵ states, "There is no assurance that the problems discussed today with such assiduity will be the problems before the country when the children now in the grades have reached the age of maturity. A list of problems will be partial, one-sided, and perhaps trivial in spots. Any one who will compare the books of civic instruction of, let us say, 1875, with the problems which a child trained in them confronted in mature years between 1890 and 1930 (allowing that span of life), can readily see that by no possible effort of mind could the teachers of 1875 have fitted the child for dealing precisely with many of the difficult issues that later perplexed him."

The criterion of "maximum of lifelikeness to the learner" is often stated in terms of the interests of adults rather than of children, as the list on page 445 shows plainly.

The curriculum-worker may then conclude that

analysis of social needs or statements of social welfare⁶ will give much-needed guidance in the choice of materials, but that in their present forms they can not dictate in detail the program to be followed.

THE POINT OF VIEW OF SCHOLARSHIP

Many of the arguments which are advanced against unification are expressed in terms of *scholarship*, rather than social welfare. The separate "subjects," they say, have grown up because organization helped in thinking. A subject is "a way of thinking about the complicated affairs of the world." Many elements of information are common to subjects such as history, geography, and civics; but their basic points of view are different. "The development of a point of view requires the orderly selection from a vast number of individual facts of those which will build and organize it. If one is trying to develop at the same time two widely divergent points of view" (history and geography) "the task of selection and arrangement becomes a hopelessly confusing problem."⁷

Reeder concludes, after weighing this question of scholarship, "We are forced to adopt that method which seems to give the best promise of training children in those techniques and points of view which will prove of most value to them as adults, provided this method may also prove interesting to the learners. What we really want is a series of usable techniques, combined with information, and a point of view in each of the subjects."⁸

Judd's point of view is that each of the disciplines develops its own ways of thinking and its own generalizations; and that those generalizations grow only out of their own appropriate settings. He says, "It is a natural tendency of the mind to specialize its thinking and to assemble in separate trains of thought, judgments of like type."⁹

After weighing both points of view, it is not necessary to conclude that social welfare and the demands of scholarship are opposed to one another. Rather, both points of view are valuable; and only such subject-matter, materials, and activities should be selected as can satisfy both criteria.

But still a third criterion remains—one which seems to have been strangely overlooked in the controversy. It is "the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process at the various grade-levels."¹⁰ For middle-grade children this criterion assumes an importance of the first rank. After the demands of both scholarship and social value have been satisfied, it may well be taken as the deciding factor in determining the validity of the organization of intermediate grade social studies around large social problems. If the learning processes of young children do not develop in harmony with the

demands of organization in terms of large social problems, then such organization is invalid.

Judd¹¹ sees a "serious danger to education in the resistance offered by children's minds to systems of knowledge which adults think it necessary to teach early in the children's school experience." Something must be wrong when such resistance is met; it may be the systems of knowledge, or it may be the point in the child's education at which we try to introduce him to problems so complicated and involved that no one has as yet found the solutions.

THE LEARNING PROCESSES OF MIDDLE-GRADE CHILDREN AND THE DEMANDS OF "LARGE SOCIAL PROBLEMS"

It must be kept in mind that we are considering the learning processes of children in the middle grades, i.e., children nine, ten, eleven, and twelve years of age. The very names given to this period of childhood by various writers on child psychology show how little is known specifically about its problems—such names as: the post-primary age, the pre-adolescent age, the intermediate grades, the upper elementary grades, the middle grades, the "Big Injun" age, the age of competitive socialization, the age of childhood, or (in terms of endocrine divisions) the era of dominance of the pineal gland. Such diversity indicates that little investigation or experimentation as to mental development in this period has been carried on and that practice must be guided largely by theory or empiricism.

Let us attempt to examine the thought processes demanded of nine- to twelve-year-old children by the organization of their social studies materials around such a problem as *Immigration* for example.

Apprehending relationships. One of the chief values claimed for the "large-problem" organization is that it encourages the accumulation of data from any appropriate field—history, geography, economics, civics, anthropology, etc. If the child collected these data himself there would not be so much question of their value to him. A point about which there can be little doubt, however, is that the child does not collect the data. The material is either gathered together into a textbook and is set-out-to-be-mastered, in the same way that "separate subjects" are, or else the teacher follows a written course of study or a lesson-plan, and skillfully "suggests" what "leads" the children are to follow next.

An essential condition to the success of either plan set forth above is that the child shall be able to apprehend the relationships involved. Is he able to apprehend such involved relationships? The

only possible way to answer such a question is to turn to the field of experimental education.

Piaget,¹² whose experiments on children's thought processes form the basis of many of the conclusions here presented, showed that relationship among objects not clearly present to the senses was not clearly ascertained by his subjects before ten or eleven years of age—even such simple relationships as the part to the whole. In narration, they did not distinguish between possible relationships, even though they were able to make such discriminations in direct observation.¹³ Stories or narratives were harder for them to re-tell than were explanations accompanied by diagrams or by objects actually encountered in life.¹⁴ Yet such stories or narratives must necessarily constitute the main media of instruction in the social studies.

Piaget's subjects even in their own stories laid stress on the events rather than on the relations of time or cause which connected them.¹⁵ He concluded that young children had an "invincible habit of thinking about things absolutely and not in relation to each other."

Cause-and-effect relationships. Piaget also found these to be difficult for children to apprehend. The continual "Why's" of young children he attributed to interest in motive rather than in causality. His subjects invented explanations for things—sometimes only a name—before they had any desire to check results or to prove their explanations, and they began to entertain vague ideas of causation long before they could make any definite statements about them. John Dewey, years before Piaget's experiments, noticed also that the young child's "Why's" were not a demand for a scientific explanation, but evidenced a desire for more facts.¹⁶

Mrs. Barnes' study¹⁷ pointed to the same conclusion, although she did not analyze as carefully as did Piaget, what the children meant by their "Why" questions.

Another difficulty which is encountered by young children in their attempts to apprehend relationships (quite aside from the complication presented by the relationship itself) is their difficulty in holding the problem or question in mind. Teachers who have written the question under consideration on the board, and who have had constantly to call children's wandering attention to the main problem, long ago discovered this difficulty. Children are likely to regard any two facts which appear together as having a causal relationship,¹⁸ and are very easily side-tracked into another train of reasoning. To bring only the relevant factors into consciousness seems almost impossible.

Comparison, which is another form of seeing relationships, is impossible unless the observer is

acquainted with both elements to be compared. An examination of the titles of unit-problems given on page 445 shows how unlikely it is that such knowledge is in the possession of middle-grade children, or that it can be put into their possession in the time available.

The results of the Binet-Simon tests showed that the twelve-year-age level was needed before adequate comparisons, with consequent generalizations, were made, although, long before, the children had showed a practical sense of comparison in simple social situations. They did not see similarities between given sets of three words until twelve years of age. "Rational insight into social relationships"¹⁹ was a comparatively late development. In a situation children tended to see, not the significant common elements, but striking trivialities. As they grew older, the contradictory and irrelevant elements in a system of thought gradually disappeared and the other elements remained. "Much time, however, was needed to build up a consistent system."²⁰

It seemed that fourth or fifth grade children (ages nine to perhaps eleven) had not yet developed their powers of (1) apprehending relationships, (2) tracing cause and effect, and (3) making logical comparisons on a verbal plane, to a degree sufficient to warrant the building of their entire social studies curriculum around these powers.

Piaget also found that there was little consciousness of *contradictions* in statements or thoughts, even their own, on the part of young children until eleven years of age. The same conclusion has been borne out by the reactions of children from nine to eleven or twelve on detecting the absurdities of the Binet-Simon test. The contradictions which involved immediate observation from one's own point of view could be detected by the younger children, but if it were necessary to take a relative point of view, i.e., the point of view of some one else, the task could not be accomplished by the average child until the age of eleven or twelve—the end of the middle grade period.

Syncretism and analysis. Piaget also discovered that the younger subjects in his experiments secured only a vague general notion of a new idea as a whole; that they were quite satisfied with this general notion; and that they made little attempt to break it up into its elements—that is, to analyze it. By the age of eleven they had been forced by outside circumstances to break up impressions of the world, and to abstract and generalize; but they still had difficulty in ascertaining relationships. In the process of breaking up an experience or a situation into its elements, the striking factors still tended to be selected rather than the relevant. The younger children saw from their own

viewpoint only, and were unable to handle other relationships on a verbal plane.²¹

Koffka²² also says, "... in the first solution—each part-reaction is made as a member of-or with reference to the solution of the whole." Piaget adds that progress takes place and ideas take shape, not in adding new data, but in the "dis-sociation of confused and syncretistic ideas."²³ These ideas must be taken out of the setting in which they were presented by experience and must be put into another setting by imagination.

From what has been described as to the thought processes of nine- to eleven- or twelve-year-old children, their ability to analyze large social problems consistently and independently, to the degree demanded by the courses of study quoted above, may be doubted. Gates reminds us, "Premature efforts to perceive subtle facts will result in the chagrin of failure and the exercise of erroneous reactions,"²⁴ and, "the most common defect in the choice of reasoning problems is the selection of materials and situations that are too difficult."²⁵ He gives a list of typical problems for children of eleven, which are similar to the problems given on page 445. In such exercises, he estimates that one-half of the children of that age will fail. The estimate offers little encouragement to the drawing up of such a curriculum for fourth, fifth, or even sixth grade children.

Verbalism. This is not the place to carry on a lengthy discussion of word-meanings. However, it is necessary to point out that the mental processes of children are somewhat different when they begin to reason on a verbal plane from the processes involved when they are dealing primarily with *action*. Piaget showed that children had a great interest in words and used them whether or not clear-cut meanings were associated. Action helped to clarify meanings; but, when the children began to carry on long trains of thought in word-meanings which were not built up out of their own direct experience, they fell back into old errors in thinking which they had already outgrown on the plane of action. Such relapses continued until about the age of twelve; their significance for problems in the social studies is obvious. (The importance of word-meanings in the thought processes is continued in the discussion of vocabulary.)

Reasoning: Inductive and Deductive: verification of. None of the tenets of the old psychology is now more completely discredited than its belief that reasoning began at the age of adolescence. Repeatedly, investigations have showed that very young children can and do reason. But to state that they can reason does not necessarily imply that they reason *in the same manner* as do adults;

and it is of particular importance to notice *when* and how they reason out their problems.

Stern and his followers were the first to report from their investigations the conclusion that young children reason by "transduction," i.e., from one particular to another, without taking the intermediate step of generalization. Piaget's later experiments²⁶ led him to the same conclusion. He found that children could reason on an individual or particular case before eight years of age; after eight, they could begin to forecast what would happen under given conditions, but only under assumptions to which they agreed as a result of their own experiences. In reasoning from assumptions which they could not adopt on that basis, they were not successful until the age of eleven. By that time social arguments and the need for agreement had developed this power.²⁷ But even then they could not reason in terms of "hierarchies of propositions," or in other words in syntheses of reasons.²⁸ Eleven or twelve, then, would seem to be the age when children can attack problems for which direct experience cannot be provided fully—(sixth grade or early junior high school).

A second factor to be considered is that reasoning—"a new organization of ideas for the purpose of effecting satisfactory adjustment to a new or problematic situation"—matures more slowly than sensory processes because its raw material is *content*. Content can be supplied only gradually, first by actual experience and later by vicarious experience. The child's reasoning in a given line is crude and inadequate both because of his ignorance of the basic facts and of his inability to handle the *technique* of the process. Growth consists, not of a complete change in the capacity, but of a greater and more accurate stock of materials and a better control of the process.

We have seen that children reason in concrete situations long before they can reason on a verbal plane in connection with ideas with which they are only vaguely acquainted; and that they use overt responses showing the results of reasoning before they are able to formulate statements about the process. Their inaccuracies are due to (1) inadequate supply of facts, (2) difficulties in abstractions due to lack of success in apprehending relationships, (3) immature habits of attention, which tend to lose sight of the problem, (4) lack of control of technique, (5) difficulty in analyzing, and (6) lack of power in critical evaluation and verification of results.

Macaulay and Watkins²⁹ found that children from nine to twelve did not attempt to criticize in any way the judgments of society as to what is right or wrong, even when they themselves might gain by so doing.

Dewey³⁰ mentioned five steps in reasoning, which presented the same difficulties to young children: (1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of possible solutions; (4) development of the bearings of the suggestions (this alone he called reasoning); and (5) further observations and experiment leading to a conclusion.

Teachers³¹ ordinarily have attempted to help children to solve reasoning problems by (1) "directing attention to important aspects of experience helping in the analysis and synthesis; (2) encouraging a habit of cautious procedure; and (3) forming the habit of putting the solution reached to some critical test." We have seen, however, that critical evaluation is a process which children seldom apply on a verbal plane in their own reactions.

The Binet-Simon test-results have showed that not until twelve years of age can the average child solve such simple verbal reasoning problems as devising a superior plan for searching for a lost ball, or arranging disarranged words. Mrs. Barnes' study³² showed that her subjects possessed little ability to draw inferences until they were nearly twelve years of age.

And even after the child of eleven or twelve years has advanced to a higher plane of reasoning, he suffers many regressive steps and temporary setbacks, before he reaches mastery and consistency in both content and method.³³ None of which studies offer much encouragement to organizing middle-grade social studies materials exclusively as a series of large social problems.

Abstraction and generalization. Deduction is obviously dependent upon abstraction. Gates³⁴ gave the following rules for abstraction: (1) choice of gross situations, (2) avoidance of irrelevant details, (3) giving attention to the abstract element, (4) emphasizing an element by contrasting it with its opposite or an unlike element, and (5) inducing the pupils to react vigorously. He also would encourage the practice of stating the essence of an idea in words.

But here, again, the Binet-Simon test has found that the average child is not able to give the meanings of three out of five abstract words, or to interpret fables, or to name similarities among three objects until twelve years of age. McGrath³⁵ found that not until the age of seventeen were 75 per cent of her group able to abstract the common element in two forms of wrong-doing well known to them. In the experimental literature, we therefore find little encouragement for believing that children nine to eleven years of age are able to employ consistently a method of organization and study which depends largely upon abstraction.

Generalization, which is complementary to ab-

straction, passes through the same stages of development. Peterson³⁶ showed that children of eleven years could generalize as well as adults upon materials *with which they had had actual experience*. They reacted more to parts of situations than did adults and less to whole situations, and, as was to be expected, they generalized less accurately on the more rational problems.

In the ordinary schoolroom situation, there is grave danger that children will not possess acquaintance with the supporting data, but that a generalization will be set out for them by the teacher or by the text, that they will repeat or memorize it, and that then both they and the teacher will believe it to be a genuine generalization—which of course it is not, so far as they are concerned.

However, the continued practice of forming generalizations does help in developing the habit of viewing historical material in the light of principles, as do also summaries and reviews. The success which may be expected from such exercises will depend on the richness of supporting detail, and on continuity of viewing.

Conclusions: application to problem-solving. The foregoing review of the available evidence is discouraging to the organization of the curriculum in terms of large social problems. It is not necessary, however, to conclude, because children's habits of analysis, seeing relationships, reasoning, and generalization are crude and incomplete, that the best course must therefore be to wait until adolescence before attempting to present any problem-solving exercises or activities of any kind. On the contrary, the evidence showed that even young children used all these processes, however immaturely and inaccurately.

It seems quite probable that the processes mentioned above can be assisted by wise training. Therefore, teachers should constantly observe the maturation and development of these desirable ways of thinking; they should give exercise and

guidance, particularly in leading from direct experience to vicarious experience; and they should test at stated times to determine the progress which is being made. Frequent problem-solving exercises should be undertaken at the proper stage.

But to organize social studies work for nine- to eleven- or twelve-year-old children entirely on a basis which assumes a high degree of abstract reasoning power on their part (such as is involved in the consideration of vital social problems), seems, on the basis of the evidence now available, to be a serious error. It is also highly dangerous to present complicated problems to children, and to expect immediate reasoning on their part before they are in possession of any of the facts involved.

In conclusion, it is only fair to remind ourselves that the evidence which has been presented is based on investigations in general fields of learning. Such evidence should be supplemented by similar investigations in the specific fields of social studies content before we can be quite sure that the findings apply specifically to the social studies.

In the light of such knowledge as we have, however, the best course to follow at present seems to be to resolve "the social studies" for the middle grades into the separate subjects—geography and history, or to organize the course around very simple "fusion" problems. Part of the energy which, for the last few years, has been devoted to organizing new unified courses might well be devoted to reorganizing the separate subjects. Their present shortcomings are clearly recognized, but the remedy may lie in reorganizing them *as such*.

A separate weekly period devoted to Current Events might help to keep present-day conditions in the forefront of both teachers' and pupils' interests.³⁷

Civics during these years is not properly a school subject at all, but is a *way of performance* of all the other activities. It may more properly be described as Character Training or Citizenship Training.

II. CAN THE OBJECTIVE OF HISTORY IN THE MIDDLE GRADES BE DISTINGUISHED FROM THE GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY?

The conclusion reached in Part I was that, in the light of the available evidence, the best course at present seemed to be to present history in the middle grades as a separate subject. The objectives of that subject should therefore receive thoughtful consideration. Fortunately, an authoritative statement has recently become available³⁸ as to the objectives of all the social studies. It will serve as a point of departure, and will help in determining the general point of view.

Again, the threefold criteria of social needs and

welfare, sound scholarship, and the learning process, must be applied.

THE GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY

A competent analysis of the general objectives of history as a subject which was made some years ago by Howard C. Hill³⁹ serves as a convenient summary. The objectives which he classified as "false or inadequate" may be omitted from our discussion: viz., narrow patriotism, models for moral instruction, assistance in other subjects, and trans-

fer values. Those objectives which he classified as "legitimate" will need to be examined further in order to determine their validity for middle grade children.

(A) The objective which he stated as "an understanding of present-day institutions" may be readily accepted as harmonizing with the "social welfare" criterion. "Merely knowing the race's record of achievement helps to draw one into the social group. It helps to develop respect for society and the results of society's efforts." The specific question as to *which* institutions are suitable for study at this level and which parts of history are needed to explain those institutions will be considered later under the heading "Selection of Materials."

(B) The objective which Mr. Hill stated as "historical-mindedness" and which included (1) the search for truth, (2) the demanding of evidence, and (3) looking at both sides of a question is probably not well adapted to most children in the middle grades⁴⁰—if we are to judge by the analysis of mental processes given in Part I. Mrs. Barnes' study,⁴¹ for example, showed a certain critical ability from the age of nine onward, but it was not well developed until the age of twelve or thirteen. The conclusions might well be drawn that the teacher should be aware of the desirability of this objective; that she should try to train children not to accept statements without inquiry; and that she should definitely require them to view different sides of the same question. The book used, let us hope, will be so organized as to show cause and effect, and the children should be asked to reason about the causes after they know the thread of events. But, on the other hand, little is to be gained by attempting a premature comparison of authorities, or an evaluation of sources, or a judgment of motives. "Historical-mindedness" is not an appropriate major objective but is rather a supplementary objective in the training of middle-grade children.

(C) The objective which Mr. Hill stated as "the development of lasting intellectual tastes" may be accepted without comment; no one has questioned its suitability for middle-grade children.

The teachers of middle-grade children should have clearly in mind the general objectives of all the social studies, and the general objectives of history, so that they may secure each value as opportunity offers. But a further analysis is needed, also, so that specific objectives especially appropriate to each level may be set up for guidance and measurement of attainment. At present, the objectives of the whole field of history have been presented from many angles and a fair degree of agreement has been reached; but the analy-

ses of objectives at different levels have not been thoroughly worked out. Gradation and integration have not been satisfactorily accomplished. Each level is still inclined to go its own way, regardless of its articulation with others.

OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

The primary grade level has probably been more successful than any of the others; "socialization of children" seems to have been generally accepted as its major objective. Perhaps this very success on the primary level offers an explanation of the lack of success on the middle-grade level; teachers there have attempted to continue exactly the same objectives and the same techniques, oblivious to the fact that the child's entire outlook on the world has been changed by his mastery of the reading process.⁴² This new situation which has arisen, the middle-grade teachers are likely either (1) to ignore, thus continuing the primary objectives and technique, or (2) to overestimate, and in consequence to throw children immediately and entirely upon their own resources, thus attempting to reach at one bound the full objectives of maturity. This break occurs at about the beginning of the fourth grade. What is urgently needed, therefore, is an analysis of *objectives* and *technique* suited to the capacities, as well as the interests of children entering the fourth grade and during the immediately-succeeding period.

The effort to distinguish between knowledges, attitudes, and appreciations in the statements of objectives seems not to have been particularly fruitful. The following examination of suggested middle-grade objectives will, therefore, deal with them as a whole, and will not attempt to divide them into the afore-mentioned categories.

One of the earliest attempts to delimit the field for the middle grades was that of Miss Lucy Salmon,⁴³ who suggested as objectives: (1) to foster interest in the past; (2) to stimulate the imagination by vivid pictures; and (3) to stimulate the enthusiasms. Later Henry Johnson⁴⁴ suggested that particular facts relating to external conditions and activities are "plainly the A B C's of history," and that, therefore, the principle to be observed was continuity—action following action in consequence and time. He would present in the beginning, history which is descriptive and narrative, relating to the general social and political world. Still later Uhl's⁴⁵ study of reading-interests showed that the essential quality in all stories rated as "superior" in grades four, five, and six was *action*; and in consequence many writers set up the following of action as an objective.

Klapper's⁴⁶ discussion of the stage of development of the middle grades, classified the fourth

grade with the first three. Therefore his objectives for this grade are on a primary level, an unfortunate classification in view of the mastery of the reading process possessed by children of nine years of age.⁴⁷ For the fifth and sixth grades, which he calls the "representative stage" in the learning of history, he suggested a "systematic study of the most important facts and the most dramatic pictures of history."

Judd⁴⁸ suggested for history two early stages, which are valuable in the drawing up of objectives: (1) ability to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events and (2) an understanding of the physical facts which influence history. The second stage may be accomplished in some degree at the same time as the first.

It may seem that children would naturally think in coherent, continuous trains of ideas, but an examination of the evidence contradicts this easy belief. Piaget⁴⁹ found that child-narrative proceeded by juxtaposition; and its order was disconnected, with little regard for either time or cause. Without practice in narrative, coherence of thought did not develop markedly before the age of eleven.⁵⁰

Dashiell⁵¹ stated that "most human thinking behavior is unquestionably in continuous trains" but that such behavior is affected by the thinker's whole organization of systems of habits. It is such systems of habits that training helps to build. Mrs. Barnes⁵² study showed that an interest in time and truthful record began as early as seven years but that there was little continuity or order of development. McGeoch,⁵³ however, found that the ability to report correctly increased rapidly after the age of nine.

It is true that narrative, or the arranging of ideas in coherent sequences, "is not a profound achievement of analytical thinking," but such arranging or following of the general outline and trend of action is a first step toward coherent grouping of ideas. Thus, one of the simplest types of associative thinking lays the groundwork for analytical thinking.

A common belief is represented in the following quotation:⁵⁴ "Pupils in the earlier grades cannot learn history in its time-relations, because they are not able to stretch their imaginations with accuracy back over long periods of time. Therefore, a type of preparatory history must be organized for the pupils of the earlier grades, that is designed to take them in their imaginations on more and more definite journeys back into the past." In view of what has already been stated about the continuity of narrative, a much better method would seem to be to arrange events in movements following a general chronological order, and to fall back upon children's understanding of num-

ber to help interpret this time-order. (See also the discussion on time.)

In this connection Dewey⁵⁵ said, "The development of an unconscious logical attitude and habit must come first"—(before a conscious method is adopted), "and the ability—may be hindered by premature formulation. Repeated use gives a method definiteness." The application to our problem seems clear. One of the best ways to develop connected, orderly thinking is to put before pupils connected, orderly materials. Coherence in the form of narration is probably the easiest connection to apprehend, which leads to an understanding of history.

The importance of continuity in historical thinking may perhaps be presented negatively by the results of a study of double promotions.⁵⁶ The breaking-up of the continuity of progress by rapid acceleration was found by the experimenter to have a more unfavorable effect on the pupils' grades in history and geography than in any other school subjects.

That an understanding of narrative and a rudimentary understanding of the physical facts which influence history may well be united as objectives was mentioned by Freeman⁵⁷ in his exposition of the constant dependence of history upon geography. "Spatial imagination" is only one factor in such dependence, but it is a factor comparatively easy to develop. The difference in physical surroundings is one of the most easily conceived of differences.

Finally, the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies⁵⁸ mentioned as an objective "a knowledge of how to acquire knowledge." Specific training in the use of books can, without doubt, be begun in the middle grades.

CONCLUSIONS AS TO MIDDLE GRADE OBJECTIVES

We may conclude, then, that the *general* objectives of history will be developed so far as possible in the intermediate grades, but that in addition, these grades should have *their own* guiding objectives. The writer ventures to suggest the following until more exact objectives shall have been set up by a scientific technique.

1. A lasting interest in history.
2. Ability to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events.
3. An elementary realization of the influence of geographic and economic forces upon history.
4. The ability to use books.

Naturally, there will exist great individual differences between children within a given grade. Especially in the sixth grade, the superior children will possess the abilities and capacities of "aver-

age" junior high school pupils. The teacher, as a matter of course, will attempt to challenge and develop these capacities by attaining so far as possible the junior high school objectives also. The teacher will concentrate first, however, upon the

specific objectives for middle grade children.

Upon such a foundation as has been suggested above, the junior and senior high schools could progress far towards the realization of the ultimate objectives of the subject.

III. WHAT MATERIALS SHOULD BE SELECTED FOR MIDDLE GRADE CHILDREN AND HOW SHOULD THOSE MATERIALS BE ORGANIZED?

SOCIOLOGICAL AND SCHOLARSHIP CONSIDERATIONS

The question of selection of content is to be decided primarily by the criteria of social welfare and sound scholarship—the nature of the learning process afterwards determining, out of the entire range of possibilities presented, suitable choices for a given age. Social and scholarship values lie outside the province of this article; we shall therefore assume that a large collection of data has been assembled which have satisfied the two tests; and we shall proceed to attempt to apply the third criterion (the nature and limitations of the learning process) to these materials.

DIFFICULTY, INTEREST, AND THE LEARNING PROCESS

The materials selected for the primary grades show a remarkable degree of uniformity, except that in a few instances a study of prehistoric life (which made its way into the curriculum in the 1890's under the dominance of the recapitulation theory and the culture-epoch plan) has been retained, long after its basic psychological background has been discredited. Mrs. Mossman⁵⁹ says, "Children find the stories of simpler social life easier to understand than the forms about them," and she gives us an illustration "Firekeeper at the door of the cave" as a means of understanding the police and fire functions of today. Her assumption is open to question; it takes no account of the extremely difficult process of *dissociation* necessary for young children to understand prehistoric life.

A second school of thought is represented by those primary educators, who assume that pupils are interested only in the experiences of their own immediate world, and who make no attempt to extend their horizons. The great body of workers, however, have reached an agreement, as stated above.

The main field of study in history for the middle grades, the preceding section (Part II) concluded, was "a coherent narrative of successive events." The stories of these events should be arranged in stages of learning, each easy enough to be mastered without discouragement, interesting enough to furnish an incentive for going on, and not so long that it constitutes a tax on the child's ability to follow the relationships involved.

What events should be selected for narrative in the middle grades after the child's curiosity about his own environment has been settled in the primary grades? Social phenomena are enormously varied; some of them involve acquaintance with abstract topics which the children's experiences furnish no basis for understanding. Such topics are: financial history, the tariff, involved constitutional development and interpretation, complicated details of politics and war, etc. They are clearly unsuitable for middle-grade children.

On the other hand, as Uhl's study showed,⁶⁰ children are greatly interested in *action*. Social, economic, and industrial histories, as well as the political growth of states, furnish such stories of stirring action. These, then, may well form the principal content. Piaget⁶¹ noticed a "systematic interest" in industry, machines, and adult handicrafts on the part of children generally, although girls were slightly inferior to boys in this respect. Such an interest is valuable for school purposes, and should be capitalized.

Even the subject of war should not be omitted entirely, though certain organizations so recommend for propaganda purposes. A true representation of war as it is, may perhaps carry its own moral; at any rate it must be included in its broad general outlines if anything like a true picture of our social development is to be presented.

Freeman⁶² suggested beginning with a simple historical narrative—a series of events occurring in time. He believed that the history of one country constituted a thread easier to follow than that of all the world at once. Probably under the current practice of weaving materials into units this consideration bears less force than formerly; nevertheless, it is a factor to take into account in attempting to decide the difficult question of whether to begin with American History or with World History in the fourth grade.

Freeman and Johnson have pointed out more clearly than most writers that dissociating one's ideas of the present from the past is an even more difficult task than forming new ideas. If one accepts this view, the more unlike the present any period in history proves to be, the more difficult will young children find that period to master. This consideration also, then, points toward American

History as more suitable material for young children than World History.

In general, the considerations favorable to beginning in the fourth grade with World History are (1) that it is the logical order; (2) that it develops a world point of view from the very beginning of history study; (3) that children who leave school early will have obtained some idea of world affairs. On the other hand, the considerations which recommend the placing of American History before World History are (1) that the material is closer to children's interests and experiences and they hear allusions to it more frequently; (2) that it requires less complete dissociation from the present; (3) that probably the history of one country is a less difficult thread to follow than that of many countries; (4) and that there are more reading materials available on lower grade levels about subjects in American History.

The question, however, is one to which an authoritative answer cannot be given at the present time, because of lack of experimental evidence.

RELATIVE VALUES

A third principle for guidance in the selection of materials is the consideration of relative values. Judging relative values is a process to be carried out by scientific investigation, after which the materials chosen should be graded by a study of psychological processes. Fortunately, there is available a considerable body of such scientific investigation in the fields of content, persons, places, dates, and historical terms.⁶³ Little has been done, however, on the scientific gradation of materials so derived; and little weight can be attached to the opinions of teachers, unless their judgments correlate closely with other standards.⁶⁴ Most judgments of grade placement in the field of the social studies are purely empirical.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

In organizing history in terms of the learning process, Herbert Spencer's principles are of some assistance: (1) from simple to complex; (2) from concrete to abstract; and (3) from empirical to rational, with his principles of (4) self-development and (5) the success-pleasure stimulus considered as means towards attaining desirable ends.

The most generally accepted principle is that which Parker⁶⁵ expressed as "an intensive study of a few large topics" rather than "an encyclopaedic survey of many topics." In such a plan the place of details is to build up a complete picture; the details themselves are soon forgotten but the "feeling-of-meaning" remains.

Bonser⁶⁶ presented a list of seven guiding principles which were very helpful to organization in

general; and Bobbitt gave a list of assumptions which did much to clarify points of view⁶⁷ in history teaching.

The writer has summarized elsewhere an evaluation of the chronological, topical, and counter-chronological methods of organization,⁶⁸ none of which is widely used at present in the middle grades. The controversy at that level is chiefly whether the biographical method is to be used or the unit method.

In 1909 the published report of the Committee of Eight gave voice to the opinion that children were more interested in persons than in events, and that therefore the appropriate subject of historical study for the middle grades was biography. This opinion was not based on scientific evidence; in 1909 an opinion could not be so based, for the scientific study of education was then in its infancy. When the investigator today examines the heterogeneous collections of materials in the history text and courses of study of the decade before 1909, assembled as they were without coherence or cumulative effect, he does not wonder that the committee members, in despair of finding any unifying principle that children could understand, decided that biography was the only thread which could tie the unwieldy mass together.

But that was more than twenty years ago. As early as 1915 Henry Johnson⁶⁹ pointed out the unsatisfactory results secured from grouping events about men. He suggested instead, in the interests of proportion and continuity, that men be grouped about events.

In 1923 Miss Marion G. Clark,⁷⁰ who was also dissatisfied with the results obtained by the biographical method, made an experimental study of children's understanding of continuity and change. She found that even fourth-grade children could appreciate change and development; and she therefore concluded that a continuous narrative based on action was better suited to them than were merely biographical stories.

Gradually practice in the field changed. Texts discarded the biographical in favor of the topical and then of the unit organization, to conform with test-findings and the opinions of experts.⁷¹ And still one finds echoes of the twenty-year-old Committee of Eight opinion in recently published books, stated as dogmatically and with as little supporting evidence as if a scientific technique were unknown even yet. "Books must necessarily be biographical or semi-biographical in character in order to gratify the developing interests of the pupils in the personal side of history," says one writer⁷² who then proceeds to set up a biographical curriculum for the grades. Another⁷³ quotes biography as the chief subject of study for the

middle grades, though he admits that units are better for the upper grades. This positive statement is made by a third:⁷⁴ "The study of progress, however logically the events may be grouped, is never as real and as concrete to a child as the study of a real person." A close examination of the investigations in the field of the social studies offers no support to such a statement; in fact it points to the exactly opposite conclusion.

A teacher,^{74a} whose children have been trained on the unit basis and who administers tests at the end of each unit, recently related to the writer a curious difficulty which the children encountered in their attempt to arrange certain lists of events and lists of persons in time-order. They had little difficulty with the events, but when they came to the lists of names, they reported that "they had to stop and think first what event each man was connected with, and that was harder." This teacher's experience seems to indicate that if children have been trained in handling units, and if their reading-materials have been arranged in units, they find less difficulty in following a unit-movement than in tracing an event through the various biographies of great men.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

Materials for the social studies in the middle grades are selected by the criteria of social welfare, sound scholarship, and difficulty as measured by pupil maturity. Stories of action are of special interest. Relative values as determined by scientific investigation help to select the quantity which can be administered out of the vast collection of materials which have satisfied other criteria.

Whether stories of American History or World History should be introduced first is still an unsettled question.

The principles of organization generally agreed upon are an intensive study of a relatively few topics, and psychological rather than logical arrangement. Biographical organization is being definitely superseded by movement-organization or by units.

(To be continued)

¹ See also Frank McMurry's criticism in the *22nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, pp. 292-304, (1923).

² See Mary Harden, "Changing Conceptions in the Teaching of Social Studies in the Elementary School." *Historical Outlook*, XXI: 73-77, (Feb., 1930).

³ See Howard Wilson, *First Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, p. 124; Edwin H. Reeder, "What Are Life Situations?" *Teachers College Record*, 29:409-416, (Feb., 1928); David Snedden, "Towards Functional Uses of Social Studies in School Educations." *Teachers College Record*, 31:430-448, (Feb., 1930).

⁴ See E. H. Reeder, "Shall We Discard the Traditional Subjects of Study in the Upper Elementary School?" *Teachers College Record*, 30:310-321, (Jan., 1929).

⁵ Charles Beard, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 42-43, 95.

⁶ Such as those listed in W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Elementary Subjects*, p. 352, (D. Appleton 1929).

⁷ Edwin H. Reeder, "The Social Studies—or History and Geography?" *Education*, 52:258, (Jan., 1932).

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⁹ Charles H. Judd, *Psychology of Secondary Education*. (Ginn & Co., 1927), p. 98.

¹⁰ Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, *Op. Cit.*, p. 2.

¹¹ Charles H. Judd, *Op. Cit.*, p. 46.

¹² Jean Piaget, *Judgment and Reasoning in the Child*, (Harcourt Brace Co., 1928), p. 120; and *The Child's Conception of Physical Causality*, (Harcourt Brace & Co., 1930), p. 156.

¹³ Jean Piaget, *Judgment and Reasoning in the Child*, p. 19.

¹⁴ Jean Piaget, *Language and Thought of the Child*, (Harcourt Brace & Co., 1926), p. 95.

¹⁵ *Op. Cit.*, p. 107.

¹⁶ John Dewey, *How We Think*, (D. C. Heath & Co., 1910), p. 32.

¹⁷ Earl Barnes, *Studies in Education*, Vol. I, p. 43, (Stanford University, Cal., 1897).

¹⁸ Jean Piaget, *Child's Conception of Physical Causality*, (Harcourt Brace & Co., 1930), p. 253.

¹⁹ Harry L. Hollingworth, *Mental Growth and Decline*, (D. Appleton Co., 1927), p. 195.

²⁰ Clarence E. Ragsdale, *Modern Psychologies and Education*, (Macmillan Co., 1932), Ch. 7.

²¹ Jean Piaget, *Judgment and Reasoning in the Child*, (Harcourt Brace & Co., 1928), p. 249.

²² *The Growth of the Mind*, (Harcourt Brace & Co., 1924), p. 239.

²³ *The Child's Conception of Physical Causality*, p. 175.

²⁴ *Psychology for Students of Education*, (Rev. Ed., Macmillan Co., 1930), p. 371.

²⁵ *Op. Cit.*, p. 410.

²⁶ *Judgment and Reasoning of the Child*, pp. 32, 183.

²⁷ *Op. Cit.*, p. 73.

²⁸ *Op. Cit.*, p. 222.

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³⁰ John Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 72.

³¹ Pyle Wm. H., *Outlines of Educational Psychology*, pp. 229-230, (Warwick and York, 1911).

³² *Op. Cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 86, 88.

³³ Jean Piaget, *Child's Conception of the World*, p. 204.

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³⁹ Howard C. Hill, "History for History's Sake," *Historical Outlook*, 12:310-315, (Dec., 1921).

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⁵⁵ Jean Piaget, *Child's Conception of Physical Causality*, pp. 195, 226.

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⁶⁹ Mrs. Laverne Glennon of the Wilmette, Ill., Public Schools.

Outline for a Practical Unit in Consumption Economics

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Consumption economics has long been a greatly neglected field in high school courses in economics. Textbooks have included more or less formal discussions of the laws of consumption and the laws of demand, but almost without exception, presented from the point of view of the producer. Some have included comparatively brief discussions of thrift in investment. Likewise, a few have briefly discussed budgeting. There is, nevertheless, an unavoidable feeling on the part of the critical reader that students have not been shown exactly how to make ten dollars spent wisely do the work of twelve or fifteen spent in the usual manner. Harap, writing in 1927, expressed the criticism thus: "The schools have not taught our population to live effective economic lives. Day by day, the great mass of people are blundering in their daily habits of consumption. Unwittingly they reject beauty, health, and comfort. They suffer tremendous wastes of food and fuel. With an inadequate income, they are ignorant of the most economic habits of purchase and use of food, clothing, homes and fuel. Economic life makes a fundamental demand which education will increasingly heed in order to re-

store 'the well doing of everything that needs to be done.'"¹

The recent study of the American Consumer Market made Dr. Virgil Jordan for *The Business Week*² shows clearly just how serious the problem of consumption is at income levels of \$1,000 and less and \$2,000 and less. Studies of income show that from three to four fifths of our population are dependent upon such incomes.³ Dr. Jordan's studies show that 54% of consumers' expenditures were from income groups with incomes of less than \$2,000, in 1929.⁴ Of the recipients of incomes, 85.6% were in the income groups of less than \$2,000.⁵ The expenditures of those with incomes of less than \$2,000 exceed their incomes by \$6,138,000,000, while expenditures for all groups exceed incomes by only \$14,717,000,000.⁶

Looking at the problem from another angle, 59.7% of all incomes were in the form of wages and salaries and only 29.5% were in the form of rent, interest, dividends, and business profits together. Yet the last four receive far more attention in textbooks than do wise spending.⁷

These and many other signs all point to the in-

escapable conclusion that in normal times the phase of economics with which most students who pass through high school will be mainly concerned for the remainder of their lives is that of consumption. Furthermore, these are not normal times. Today, more than ever before, students must be shown clearly and definitely how to be wise consumers of whatever products they are given the purchasing power to secure.

With this in mind the writer has experimented during the course of the last three years with the following outline. The textbook which has served as the frame-work for the unit has been Fay—*Elements of Economics*.⁸ However, as will be readily observed by those familiar with that text, the writer has deemed it advisable to depart widely from the text material on many occasions. This outline is not presented as conclusive or ideal. The writer does believe, though, that it attains a higher degree of practicality and concreteness than has been true of the majority of hitherto published efforts in this field. And it will serve as a point of departure from which teachers anxious to meet this problem of consumption squarely can do so.

However, as almost without exception, high school texts are written from the point of view of the producer, it will be necessary to go farther than this to make economics an effective course for consumers. Throughout the entire course, in the discussions of every principle, the student must be confronted with the question "How may I use the knowledge of this principle to make *me* a wiser consumer?"

If all of the economics teachers throughout the country were to undertake a concerted drive to keep this question uppermost in the minds of their students and to provide practical answers to it, the resulting changed viewpoint should help considerably toward enabling this country to "lift itself by its own bootstraps."

I. THE LAWS OF CONSUMPTION

- A. Law of diminishing utility—in text
- B. Law of marginal utility—Ely and Wicker, p. 117⁹ [assign]
- C. Law of variety—in text
- D. Law of harmony—in text
- E. Law of imitation—in text
- F. Law of the economic order of consumption—in text
- G. Law of substitution, indifference, or equi-marginal returns—Ely and Wicker, p. 124⁹ [assign]
- H. Engel's law—in text
 - a. The American version (Dr. Jordan), as found in: [assign]
 1. *Monthly Labor Review*, Nov. 1932¹⁰
 2. *Business Week* reprint²
 3. The graphs prepared by the writer, also analyzed for class lecture purposes by the writer from these articles.
 - b. Write a paper on how a knowledge of Engel's law will bring about wiser consumption when my income goes down, and when it goes up. Include an analysis of the graphs of the American version. [assign]

- I. The causes for increasing cost of living. The writer believes that this material is vitally necessary *now* because of the probability of just this problem arising for wage and salary earners when prosperity returns and prices commence to rise faster than incomes.

- a. Write a paper on how a knowledge of the causes for increasing cost of living will enable me to be a wiser consumer. [assign]

- J. Read Tugwell, Munro, and Stryker—Ch. 33¹¹ [assign]

II. CONSUMPTION IN PRACTICE

A. Thrift in the use of property

1. What is a thrifty person? Although the writer has not done so, there is an excellent opportunity here for work on care of clothing and other property—proper cleaning and pressing, spotting, folding, moth preparations, care of leather goods, etc. It will surprise teachers to discover how few boys and girls know anything about these things.

B. Thrift in Purchasing

1. The Make-Work Fallacy—in text

2. Budgeting

- a. Read Tugwell, Munro, and Stryker—Ch. 34, Secs. 1, 2, and 3, and pp. 584-5¹¹ [assign]

b. The Inventory

1. Read the rules and forms in the text.
2. Prepare a complete and detailed inventory of your own personal clothing, giving: [assign]
 - a. Description
 - b. Number
 - c. Probable age
 - d. Probable original cost
 - e. Probable replacement cost now
 - f. Probable life left.

c. The Budget

1. Remember—a budget is "made to be broken"; its value lies in having been made, and if broken, broken knowingly. It is not and cannot be rigid and inflexible.
2. Keep for one week (month) a daily journal of expenses. [assign]
3. From the above journal prepare an estimated budget of expenses for the coming week (month). [assign]
4. Keep for one week (month) a daily and weekly budget and journal—make this a true budget in that expenses anticipated at the beginning of the period are recorded under classification heading, as well as those actually incurred. Use figure 3, page 53 of the text as a form. [assign]
5. Make a table compiling all the recommended budgets for incomes of less than \$1,000 and less than \$2,000 and give the source from which obtained. Discuss this with your parents and ask them to estimate what per cent should be spent for each item at these incomes. From this prepare what you believe to be a suitable budget for *lshpeming* for these incomes. [assign]

a. Sources of recommended budgets

1. Taber and Wardell—*Economics of the Family*, pp. 26-6; 131-137¹²
2. Those in the text
3. Pamphlets put out by various life insurance and investment companies.

6. Problem—Assuming that your first regular position after graduation will pay you \$15.00 per week, show the way in which you will distribute your income among the various items, month by month, for the first year. Allow for all vacations and holidays. Assume that you do not live at home. [assign]

3. Standards and tests to improve purchasing

- a. Read Stuart Chase—*Your Money's Worth*¹³ [assign]
- b. Read *Introduction to Consumers' Research*¹⁴ [assign]
- c. Read Tugwell, Munro, and Stryker—Ch. 34, Secs. 4 and 5 [assign]
- d. Read, taking complete notes and outlining the tests

by kind of cloth, giving the test specifically. Use only tests practical for the average home. [assign]

1. Woolman—*Clothing: Choice, Care, and Cost*—pp. 22-25; 59-60; 64; Ch. 8 especially 112-118.¹⁸

2. Gibbs—*Household Textiles*—Ch. 9, p. 143; Appendix A, p. 224¹⁹

3. Dyer—*Textile Fabrics*—pp. 79-82, and Cr. 10¹⁷

4. Baldwin—*Shopping Book*²⁰

e. Prepare an outline of definite standards and tests to be used in purchasing: [assign]

a. Men's suits

b. Men's shirts

c. Men's shoes

d. Ladies' wool dresses or dress goods

e. Ladies' cotton dresses or dress goods

f. Ladies' shoes

f. Using the Federal Standard Stock Specifications pamphlet as a guide for specific questions, write a letter to an actual manufacturer of an actual product, asking him questions which will enable you to know how his product meets the government standards. The writer has obtained a number of these valuable pamphlets from the government at a very slight cost. [assign]

g. A home library of books useful to consumers. (For study)

1. Those nearly indispensable

a. Chase, S.—*Your Money's Worth*

b. Baldwin—*Shopping Book*

c. Subscription to *Consumers' Research*

d. Hopkins—*Scientific American Handbook*¹⁹

or

e. Henley—*Book of Recipes and Formulas*²⁰

f. A good book on judging and testing textiles

g. Price list of Federal Standard Stock Catalog Specifications and suitable pamphlets from same

h. Pamphlet from your local dealer on the proper firing of a furnace.

2. Those desirable for a more thorough knowledge

a. Subscription to *Monthly Labor Review*²¹

b. Subscription to *Survey of Current Business*²²

c. Appropriate Tariff Commission reports.

h. From magazines, catalogs, and any other sources prepare a list of organizations and sources of information to which consumers can turn to obtain information about specific commodities, i.e., *Consumers' Research*, *Good Housekeeping Institute*, etc. [assign]

C. Thrift in practice

1. A wise investment program

a. Study the text

b. Study the pages to be assigned later in De Forest—*Are You As Old Financially As In Years?*²³

c. Study the following lecture outline. This is an outline of a life program of investments designed to establish minimum standards which will permit people with low incomes to live independently throughout their lives and with less fear of depressions, old age, etc. It cannot be achieved all at once or in a few years. It is a goal for one's entire income life. Nor is it to be looked at as rigid and inflexible. It is, however, a definite plan. And, it is a unified plan, looking clear through to old age. That is what young people need in particular. Furthermore, it serves to bring home clearly to students generally not prone to believe it, just how much thrift is really necessary to be independent in old age.

I. Savings

A. Your life goal should be to use savings accumulations as a reserve fund for unemployment and for health and accident insurance, as follows:

1. Unemployment insurance—savings equal to six months of your annual income or insurance as suggested in II, C.

2. Health and accident insurance—savings

equal to three to six months of your annual income; the difference between this and actual savings to be covered as under II, D.

3. In the end, then, you will strive to carry a sum equal to from nine months' to one year's income in the savings bank for these purposes.

II. Life Insurance

A. Old-age income

1. Although death benefit is usually taken out first, the writer has found from studying rate books that in most cases it is more economical to take old-age income first, since the rates for this vary to a greater extent with age.

2. With present living standards from \$5,000 to \$10,000 (\$50-\$100 per month, roughly) should be carried.

a. \$5,000 (\$50) of this with or before the birth of the second child, preferably when you are as young as possible.

B. Death benefit

1. With present living standards from \$5,000 to \$10,000. (Since there is a possibility that the future decade will see an actual decrease in living standards, the minimum may eventually have to be reduced to \$3,000.)

a. \$3,000 at or before marriage.

b. \$2,000 more with the birth of the first child.

C. Unemployment

At least \$1,000 in ten-year endowment insurance, taken out at a suitable time on the presumption that depressions of a more or less serious nature will occur every eight to ten years.

D. Educational Endowment

1. If possible, about \$1,000 at the birth of the first child and \$500 for each born thereafter. This if not used for educational purposes, to be used as capital to start in business, or a wedding gift, etc.

E. Health and Accident

1. Coverage from \$20 per week up to 50% of your income.

2. Carry as much of this as possible in the form of savings, which bear interest. Until savings are large enough for this use health and accident insurance.

F. Postal Savings Plus Annuities As A Savings Device

1. Undoubtedly the safest plan of investment available to the general run of people today is to carry savings deposits in postal savings up to the limit allowed. When this figure is reached then withdraw all or a part and invest in single-premium annuities in a strong well-established life insurance company. Exceptionally good building and loan policies might be substituted. Under this plan postal savings accounts will bear two per cent ($2\frac{1}{2}\%$ if postal savings bonds are purchased) interest with absolute safety and sufficient freedom of withdrawal. When the fund is large enough to permit tying some of it up for a longer period the annuities will bear between four and five per cent interest with almost as much safety and freedom of withdrawal. The single premium plan considerably reduces the cost of the annuities.

G. Total Program

1. It will be evident that a prudent man has not adequately provided for old-age, death, unemployment, educational, and sickness contingencies unless he carries at least \$12,000 of insurance on himself, plus \$1,000

on his wife, plus six months income in the form of savings. Not all of it will be carried at one time, but he will strive to carry or to have matured such an amount.

III. Home

- A. Purchase at or as soon after marriage as possible, by payments in the form of rent. The excess above the normal rent thus incurred should be budgeted as a savings.

IV. Car

- A. In a wise family the above three main items come first. Note for yourself in the problem below when you will probably be able to buy one, how much you can expect to pay, and how long it must last. Remember also, the evidence in Dr. Jordan's American version of Engel's law as given in the reprint from *The Business Week*.

V. Bonds and Stocks

- A. May be an alternative to part of your savings or to a car, but never to the amount of insurance and savings specified as a minimum. Most families probably should not have any.
- B. Should be used by most people as a surplus reservoir, if you are fortunate enough to have average annual increases of more than \$100.
- d. Problem—Set up for yourself a program of savings, investment, and major purchases (real estate, car, etc.) for the next ten years. Include in your program your annual budget for each year. [assign]

Assume that your income the first year is \$15.00 per week; that your average annual increase in salary will be \$100 (perhaps too high); that you do not marry for four years but do then (from this point on girls assume that you are figuring your husband's budget); that in ten years you have two children; that there is a major depression commencing at the end of the ten years; that death benefit insurance will cost you \$10 per thousand per year, old age income \$30 per thousand per year, ten year

endowment \$100 per thousand per year, and health and accident a flat \$20 per year.

Indicate your program year by year and item by item for each year; then summarize the totals for the ten years item by item.

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Comparative Space by Periods of Sixteen Recently Published American History Textbooks

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Recent studies have shown that American history is commonly taught in all schools. All students of education recognize the significant rôle of the textbook in American as contrasted with European schools. And yet it is anomalous that school workers look almost in vain for any comparative analysis of the specific qualities of various texts. The study here summarized indicates the space distribution by periods of sixteen high school

American history textbooks. These sixteen books have been published or revised since 1925. The textbooks used in the study are:

1. Beard and Beard, *History of the United States*, Macmillan, 1929.
2. Bourne and Benton, *American History*, Heath, 1925.
3. Burnham, *Making of Our Country*, Winston, 1929.
4. Channing, *Students' History of the United States*, Macmillan, 1926.
5. Elson, *United States, Its Past and Present*, American Book Co., 1929.

6. Fish, *History of America*, American Book Co., 1928.
7. Fite, *History of the United States*, Holt, 1929.
8. Forman, *Advanced American History*, Century, 1927.
9. Guitteau, *History of the United States*, Houghton Mifflin, 1930.
10. Latané, *History of the United States*, Allyn and Bacon, 1926.
11. Mace, *American History*, Rand McNally, 1927.
12. Manion, *American History*, Allyn and Bacon, 1926.
13. Muzzey, *American History*, Ginn, 1929.
14. Shortridge, *Development of the United States*, Macmillan, 1929.
15. Thwaites and Kendall, *A History of the United States*, Houghton Mifflin, 1928.
16. West, *The American People*, Allyn and Bacon, 1928.

Each textbook was analyzed as to the relative amount of space given to the significant periods of American history. The nine periods used in the study are:

1. Introductory Facts Affecting American History.
2. Discovery and Exploration, 1492-1606.
3. Colonization and the Struggle for Supremacy of North America, 1607-1763.
4. The Revolution and the Establishment of the American Nation, 1763-1789.
5. Nationalism and Democracy, 1789-1829.
6. Expansion and Conflict, 1829-1865.
7. Reconstruction and Consolidation, 1865-1898.
8. National Expansion and the New Democracy, 1898-1914.
9. The World War and Since, 1914-1930.

The study provides a comprehensive statement of relative emphasis of sixteen commonly used American history textbooks, for nine commonly accepted periods. It is hoped the results may provoke serious consideration of desirable emphasis, in terms of the general objectives of secondary education and the specific aims of American history.

PERIOD I: INTRODUCTORY FACTS AFFECTING AMERICAN HISTORY

The number of pages for this period ranges from 4 in Bourne and Benton to 26 in Mace. It is interesting that Bourne and Benton's 4 pages represent but .6 per cent of the entire book, while Mace's 26 pages represent 4 per cent. The average percentage of all books given to this period was 1.77 per cent. Muzzey, Thwaites and Kendall, Shortridge, and Elson fall within .5 per cent of the average. Texts below the average are: Beard and Beard, Bourne and Benton, Burnham, Fite, Forman, Guitteau, Latané. Texts above the average are: Manion, Mace, Fish, Channing.

PERIOD II: DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION, 1492-1606

Three books give no space whatever to this period. Manion gives the greatest space, 7.5 per cent; Latané, the least of those giving space, 1.7 per cent. The average for the thirteen books giving space is 21 pages or 3.66 per cent. The following five books give approximately an average space: Elson, Fite, Guitteau, Manion, Thwaites and Kendall. Beard and Beard give 2.37 per cent of space to this period, and Muzzey 3.15 per cent.

PERIOD III: COLONIZATION AND THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY OF NORTH AMERICA, 1607-1763

Bourne and Benton give the least space to this period, 8.01 per cent; Thwaites and Kendall the most, 18.15 per cent. The average space is 12.65 per cent. Fite is nearest the average with 12.39 per cent. The seven books above the average in space are: Burnham, Elson, Fish, Manion, Shortridge, Thwaites and Kendall, West. Muzzey and Beard and Beard give 9.6 and 11.09 per cent respectively. Number of pages vary from 54 in Bourne and Benton to 107 in West. The average number of pages is 79. Ten books are within 10 pages of the average, as follows: Beard and Beard, 75; Channing, 70; Elson, 80; Fish, 84; Fite, 75; Forman, 75; Latané, 74; Manion, 74.

PERIOD IV: THE REVOLUTION AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE AMERICAN NATION, 1763-1789

Unlike the preceding period, there is little uniformity in the allocation of space to this period. Channing gives nearly one-fifth of his entire book, 18.31 per cent; on the contrary, Mace utilizes only 6 per cent of his volume. Muzzey with 71 pages, and Beard and Beard with 82 pages, give 9.7 and 12.13 per cent respectively. The average number of pages is 82, and the average per cent 13.15. Eight books are within a range of 10 pages from the average, as follows: Beard and Beard, 82; Burnham, 90; Elson, 80; Fish, 71; Fite, 74; Forman, 77; Guitteau, 81; Manion, 78; Shortridge, 90.

PERIOD V: NATIONALISM AND DEMOCRACY, 1789-1829

Elson gives the greatest amount of space to this period, 20 per cent. Burnham, Bourne and Benton, and West also consider this period very important with the following respective percentages: 19.48, 19.28, 18.91. It is surprising that considering the wide use of Muzzey and Beard and Beard, these books give only 11.36 and 12.13 per cent respectively to this period. Muzzey's space for this period is the smallest of any text. The range in pages is from 66 by Thwaites and Kendall, to 130 by Bourne and Benton. Guitteau and West each give 127 pages to this period.

PERIOD VI: EXPANSION AND CONFLICT, 1829-1865

All books except Mace and West devote more space to this period than to any other. Mace, in his comprehensive treatment of the social and political development of the United States as stressed in the New York State history syllabus, gives 22.22

per cent to the period following the World War. He gives only 16.13 per cent to the period of Expansion and Conflict. West stresses nationalism and democracy. The range for the period of Expansion and Conflict is from 26.51 per cent by Manion and 26.43 per cent by Channing to 14.7 per cent by West. The average is 21.38 per cent. Thwaites and Kendall, and Burnham stress the period as indicated by 21.81 and 21.91 per cent respectively. Muzzey, and Beard and Beard use only a little less space, 19.45 and 20.12 per cent respectively. The average number of pages for the period is 135.6. Muzzey gives 137, Beard and Beard 136 pages to this period.

PERIOD VII: RECONSTRUCTION AND CONSOLIDATION, 1865-1898

Fish gives the greatest emphasis to this period, 110 pages or 19.82 per cent; Manion, the least, 38 pages or 7.93 per cent. Beard and Beard, however, due to size of book, devote more pages to this period than Fish. The average percentage is 13.06; the average number of pages, 83.4. There is wide variation in the number of pages given to this period. Muzzey gives 103 pages and 14.10 per cent; Beard and Beard give 123 pages and 18.5 per cent.

PERIOD VIII: NATIONAL EXPANSION AND THE NEW DEMOCRACY, 1898-1914

Mace gives the greatest percentage of space to this period, 18.7. Muzzey agrees with Mace's emphasis and gives 129 pages or 17.67 per cent. The textbooks show greater variation of emphasis for this period than any other. Manion gives only 3.57 per cent and Guiteau 3.78 per cent. The average number of pages is 64.6, and the average per cent, 9.94. Beard and Beard give 87 pages, and 12.87 per cent. Other books above the average in space for this period are: Fite, 10.24 per cent; Mace, 18.7 per cent; Shortridge, 14.85 per cent; West, 12.06 per cent.

PERIOD IX: THE WORLD WAR AND SINCE

Mace exceeds all others for this period with 144 pages and 22.22 per cent. At the other extreme, is Channing with 22 pages and 3.5 per cent; also, Manion with 21 pages and 3.54 per cent. The average per cent is 8.7, and the average number of pages, 65. Muzzey gives 13 per cent and 95 pages to this period; Beard and Beard give 9 per cent and 60 pages.

SUMMARY

1. The sixteen American history textbooks of this study vary widely in the relative amount of space given to different periods.

2. There is a definite tendency in these textbooks to emphasize the more recent periods of American history.

3. Each text devotes more space to Expansion and Conflict than to any other period. Three books give 25 or more per cent, and only 5 books less than 20 per cent to this period. West gives the least space to this period, with 14.71 per cent.

4. Bourne and Benton, Fish, and West give no space to the period of Discovery and Exploration. The range for the period, Introductory Facts affecting American History, is from 4.01 per cent by Mace, to .6 per cent by Bourne and Benton.

5. There is wide variation for the period of Reconstruction and Consolidation. Fish and Beard and Beard give nearly 20 per cent, while Manion gives less than 8 per cent. A wide variation also for the period of National Expansion and the New Democracy shows Guiteau and Manion giving 3.78 and 3.57 per cent respectively, while Mace and Muzzey give 18.7 per cent and 17.67 per cent respectively.

6. Mace gives the greatest emphasis to the last period, The World War and Since, with 22.22 per cent; Channing gives least emphasis to this period.

The September-October number of the *Revue de Paris* contains Germaine Martin's protest against devaluation, saying that America has chosen the easiest way out but not the way which is internationally constructive. The War of Moneys, he calls the bickerings of the Economic Conference.

The English reviews in particular are featuring the Oxford Movement in these months marking the centennial of its inception. The *Nineteenth Century* contains an address given by the Most Reverend the Archbishop of Canterbury at Hawarden, on Mr. Gladstone's connection with the Movement. The comparisons made between Mr. Gladstone and Cardinal Newman are of especial interest as throwing new light on the differences between the two great Victorians. "The truth is that Mr. Gladstone could not understand Newman's peculiar mind and temperament. . . . He had not shared or followed all those perplexing and indeed agonising personal relations between Newman and his friends in that intense Oxford life. He could not appreciate all the movements, sometimes slow, sometimes poignant and even fierce within that oversubtle and sensitive nature. This is perhaps strange considering that in Mr. Gladstone's own mind subtlety was always combined with vehemence and force. . . . But the main reason of his failing to understand Newman was that he himself was so strongly and unshakably convinced of the character and destiny of the English Church that he could not understand how any one who had ever shared that conviction could have doubts about it."

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, Ed.D., *Chairman, Harvard University*

A BIBLIOGRAPHY ON THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Professor Edgar C. Bye, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, has selected and arranged an excellent *Bibliography on the Teaching of the Social Studies* (Revised Edition). In a pamphlet of 104 pages several hundred references, both book and magazine, are listed and briefly annotated. References are listed topically under such headings as "The Pupil and the Social Studies," "Preparing for the Class Meeting," "Standard Class Procedure," "Testing and Marking," etc. The pamphlet also contains an index of authors of articles, a list of publishers, and a list of organizations supplying social, political, and economic material. The bibliography is published by the H. W. Wilson Company, 958-972 University Avenue, New York City.

ANALYZING REGENTS' EXAMINATIONS

In *Ancient and Medieval History in New York State*, an unpublished master's thesis from the University of Rochester (1933), Loren S. Woolston has made a penetrating study of the relations between questions asked on Regents' Examinations for History A (1922 to 1932) and the stated aims and outlined content of the course.

Mr. Woolston first studies the New York syllabi for History A, determining the stated aims and characteristic content-features of the course. His second step is to analyze writings concerning adequate procedure in testing and to formulate the characteristics of a good examination. He then analyzes in detail the examination questions which have been asked in History A, and scrutinizes his data as to its relation to (1) the aims of History A, (2) The content characteristics of the course, and (3) the qualities of a good examination in general.

The major conclusions of his investigation are:

"1. The Regents' Examinations in History A do not test the aims of the syllabus in more than one-third of the questions. . . .

"2. The examinations are further invalid because (a) there is overemphasis on the traditional written question, and (b) the types of exercises are too restricted in testing outcomes. For example, since less than one per cent are concerned with ideals and attitudes, memory is examined almost exclusively.

"3. Political content equals that of social and economic combined.

"4. The examinations have little concern with principles, time relationships, and locational geography.

"5. History A is synthetic rather as a compound of former specialized courses than as a scientific social study drawing upon all fields of knowledge. It assumes that the past is important but not directly for the pres-

ent. It can best be understood as an intrinsic discipline whose values may be real but are, none the less, mainly inscrutable."

THE AMERICAN OBSERVER

The *American Observer*, now beginning its third year, is a "weekly review of social thought and action" published especially for use in the schools. Its editorial board is made up of Charles A. Beard, George S. Counts, Harold G. Moulton, and David S. Muzzey; the editor is Walter E. Myer. It is published weekly throughout the year except for two weeks in December by the Civic Education Service, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. Single subscription is \$3.00 per calendar year; in clubs for class use, \$1.00 a year or 50 cents a semester.

BACK NUMBERS OF THE *Geographic*

Copies of almost any issue of the *National Geographic Magazine* published since 1917 may be secured for ten cents each (plus postage) from Lawrence A. Tolpp, 202 Highland Avenue, Middletown, New York. Orders by month and year, or simply by subject (as Russia, Desert Life, etc.) will be filled.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION

The *Report of the Director of the International Labour Organization* for the year 1932 is available at forty cents a copy through the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Massachusetts. The report, a seventy-five-page pamphlet, contains chapters on "The March of the Depression," "Social Aspects of the Depression," and "The Action of the International Labour Organization."

AN EXCHANGE OF UNIT WORKSHEETS

Mr. Glenn W. Moon of Stamford High School, Stamford, Connecticut, is developing a series of units in American history, valid from the point of view of the mastery-technique. He desires to exchange unit-outlines and ideas about units with other teachers who are interested.

A PRIMER OF THE NEW DEAL

The McKinley Publishing Company, 1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia, has recently published *A Primer of the New Deal*, which explains in detail what the recovery measures are, what they are designed to accomplish, and enables teachers and pupils to understand what the Federal Government has done, and is doing, to improve our social and economic conditions. The booklet will be found useful in classes in civics, government, history, problems of democracy, economics, and other social science fields. The price is 35 cents for single copies and 25 cents, plus carrying charges, when purchased in quantities of four or more.

PICTORIAL MAPS OF "THE CONQUEST OF A CONTINENT"

For the benefit of the Million-Dollar-Fellowship-Fund the American Association of University Women is selling copies of a pictorial map, "The Conquest of a Continent." The map, 21×28 inches pictures colorfully and vividly the westward progress of the pioneer within this country. Minimum retail prices of the map are as follows: unmounted map, \$1.00; map mounted, passe-partouted and varnished, with either red or black binding, \$2.25; map framed with a good quality one-inch frame, \$3.50; map framed and "antiqued," \$3.75. Mrs. Frank N. Edmonds, 2119 Girard Avenue South, Minneapolis, Minnesota, chairman of the map project committee, will be glad to furnish wholesale rates, upon request, to members of the American Association of University Women or other organizations in communities not covered by branches of the Association.

A FORTHCOMING WORKBOOK

Ginn and Company, Boston, announce the publication on or about January 1, 1934, of a directed study guide in "The Origin of Contemporary Civilization," prepared by Alice N. Gibbons, East High School, Rochester, New York. The study guide is to include (1) a student's handbook, (2) an envelope of "consumable material," such as tests, and (3) a teacher's manual.

STATISTICAL DETERMINATION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM

In an article entitled, "Statistical Determination of the Social-Science Curriculum," appearing in the September, 1933, number of the *Journal of Educational Research* (Vol. XXVII, No. 1), Edward O. Sisson reviews certain outstanding examples of the application of activity analysis to the selection of social science materials for the curriculum. The author concludes that there are "two methodological errors" in this type of study: first, "words are counted rather than ideas or concepts," and the "second main error lies in the counting of mentions without weighing them."

CAN THE WORKBOOK BE JUSTIFIED?

In view of the ever-increasing number of workbooks which have been and are being prepared for use in the social subjects, an article entitled, "Can the Workbook be Justified?" by C. C. Von Liew, appearing in the October, 1933, issue of the *School Executives' Magazine* is of interest. The author seems to feel that the present workbooks "lack the justification of a careful provision for guidance in study and learning. It isn't enough merely to ask questions, call for the making or checking of lists, offer blanks to be filled, and the like." However, he concludes that the workbook can be of real service to the teacher and student if it serves as a "guide and aid to the pupil's study so that he may learn well." Also he indicates that the good workbook must "marshal facts with a view to their significant organization, to large thought wholes." And thus it will "make for the independent, self-directed student."

RADIO CURRENT EVENTS

The Columbia Broadcasting Company has three regular series of talks on current events of interest to social-science teachers. Boake Carter comments on current news each evening except Saturday and Sunday at 7:45; H. V. Kaltenborn discusses public affairs each Friday at 6:45 and Sunday at 7:00; Frederick William Wile comments on the news each Saturday at 7:00 P.M. The Columbia Broadcasting Company also announces coming broadcasts from the Byrd Expedition to Antarctica, but no dates have yet been set.

THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

Clara Louise Dentler, of the Redlands High School, Redlands, California, has prepared a series of imaginative newspapers dealing with the historical and social events and conditions in Europe and America during the modern history period, entitled, *The Contemporary World*. Every item is a contemporary statement based on the source material of the time. *The Contemporary World* is especially valuable in giving a cross-section of events taking place in the different countries for the critical dates in modern history. The series is composed of ten papers for the following dates: 1648, 1688, 1713, 1740, 1763, 1793, 1815, 1830, 1848, 1870. Single copies, 10 cents each; quantities of 10 or more, 5 cents each, may be secured from the McKinley Publishing Company, 1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGY SERIES

The American Book Company announces the inauguration of a new series of text and reference books in sociology. The general editor is Dr. Kimball Young of the University of Wisconsin. The first volume of the series is *The Community and Society: An Introduction to Sociology*, by L. D. Osburn, educational director of the Los Angeles Institute of Family Relations, and M. H. Newmeyer, of the University of Southern California.

USING RADIO IN TEACHING

Mr. Calvin Nichols, 95 Raymond Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts, is studying the problem of how to use radio broadcasts most effectively in teaching social science. He will be glad to enter into correspondence with others interested in the same field.

A METHOD OF TESTING

In the *Journal of Geography* for October, 1933 (Vol. XXXII, No. 7) M. Melvina Svec presents "A Method of Testing" of value to social science teaching generally. The method proposed is sometimes referred to as a "brief-answer" test. Each test consists of a series of descriptive paragraphs beside each of which the pupil is to write the name of the thing described. In one test a series of descriptions of different forest regions are to be identified as Northern, Central Hardwood, Southern, Pacific, etc. In another of the author's tests a series of boys are described and pupils are expected to tell in what great pasture area of the world each boy lives.

Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLETT BREBNER, *Columbia University*

Porfirio Diaz, Dictator of Mexico. By Carleton Beals. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1932. 463 pp. \$5.00.

What could be more fitting in this world of dictators and near-dictators, than a biography of Porfirio Diaz, "Dictator of Mexico," the best historical example of the past century. Like Machiavelli, Beals, while not an advocate, has shown the way, the method by which dictatorships are managed. And, like the author of *The Prince*, he has given us a commentary of a high order.

The grim, old "man of stone" from the soil of Oaxaca, exhibited remarkable qualities from his youth. The spirit which raised the son of an Indian artisan to the seminary, to revolt against a clerical career, to study law, to follow his former professor, Benito Juarez, in a struggle to free his country from foreign rule, and then to spend itself in the futile, internecine struggles of the *caudillo*, surely needs analysis. Far more, in his later period, should he be studied as an excrescence on the social and economic structure of Mexico. The author feels that his subject was essential to the economic development of Mexico by foreign capital. "Diaz was a great 'revolutionary' figure, alongside of whom Obregon and Calles were *papier maché*." "Revolution in Mexico has rarely been the property of those who have shouted 'revolution' and provoked armed disturbances." Beals is an ardent anti-imperialist, however, and cannot be considered exactly friendly to the Diaz form of revolution. Enough of the dictator's rule is disclosed to sicken the most hardened advocate of "law and order." The meanness of the ruler, past the days of his usefulness, who set one aspiring to succeed him against another encouraged by his favor, with the purpose of destroying all, permits little sympathy for his ultimate exile. The obtuseness and the egotism which allowed him to sacrifice the most loyal of his followers is almost inexplicable.

Here his portrait is given in high relief; the lights and shadows are all there, justice without malice or mitigation. The biographer, steeped in the lore and locale of Mexico, brings to his subject an understanding which is all too rare. With deft touches he imparts the proper tone and color, where such are more informing than precision of outline. Using the style which is familiar to readers of *Mexican Maze* and *Banana Gold*, he produces an indigenous atmosphere which is most attractive, but the Whitmanesque profusion of proper names, often without explanation, is likely to bewilder the average reader.

Certain subordinate characters are vividly portrayed with an artistic economy of expression. Lerdo de Tejada, the ex-Jesuit, Limantour, the steel-eyed financier, and Manuel Gonzalez, the hale, honest, and heroic, interim president, live in these pages. The enigmatic Juarez is shadowy, however—but perhaps Mr. Beals will limn his figure in a future treatise.

The physical features of the volume will make it

welcome to any library. The cover and end papers are by Carlos Merida, and the numerous illustrations are exceptionally fine photographs, reproduced with unusual success. There is an index, but no bibliography, for which the scholar, recognizing the fruit of diligent research, will voice his regret.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College

Joe Bailey, the Last Democrat. By Sam Hanna Acheson. New York, Macmillan Company, 1932. xvi, 420 pp. \$2.50.

The late Joseph Weldon Bailey (1863-1929), Congressman and Senator from Texas for nearly a quarter of a century, was one of the "most conspicuous and influential Democrats in official life at Washington during the Administrations of McKinley, Roosevelt, and Taft." Mr. Acheson, himself a Texan, has written an excellent biography of the Texan politician-statesman.

Joe Bailey personified in a fine manner the typical American politician. For reasons political and geographical, his political acumen as a politician was not developed in warring with opponents in the opposing political party, but it was developed through his warfare with fellow partisans in the Texas Democracy. Bailey's political life was one of continuous strife. The author has related most interestingly these battles fought largely by Bailey against two enemies: first, the late Governor James Stephen Hogg and later "Farmer Jim" Ferguson.

It was at Washington, in the National Congress, that Bailey displayed the qualities of statesmanship. Entering the House in 1890, his rise was meteoric. Before he had served three terms, he was designated as the Democratic candidate for the Speakership. The minority position of the Democrats in the House foredoomed his defeat, but the honor carried with it the position as minority floor leader. Ten years of service in the House ended in 1901 by his election as Senator.

One cannot read Mr. Acheson's pages without realizing that Bailey exercised a powerful influence on legislative action. Yet, his name does not stand out as the author of a single piece of outstanding legislation. His services were rendered in aiding the proposals of others. An excellent example of this is shown in relation to the fight for more effective social control over the nation's railroads which resulted in the passage of the Hepburn Act of 1906. He will always be remembered for his advocacy of a federal income tax law. He early voiced the need of a better and more efficient banking and currency system for the country. The author has thrown much interesting light on the legislative history of the period.

The foregoing might indicate the impression that Senator Bailey was the great exponent of progressive and liberal legislation. This was the case during his

House career and for the most part during his senatorial career. Toward the end of his legislative career we are to note a growing conservatism. This came to light, especially, during the fight over the seating of William Lorimer as Senator from Illinois in 1911. He was opposed to Woman Suffrage, Prohibition, and the Initiative, Referendum, and Recall. From the beginning, he distrusted Woodrow Wilson and the philosophy of the "New Freedom."

Bailey's relations with prominent men of his times were interesting and colorful. In the early nineties, according to the author, the Texan legislator converted Bryan to the doctrine of Free Silver, later he came to distrust him most heartily on numerous other measures. He hated Theodore Roosevelt to the extent that he would never visit at the White House. His friendship and affection for Taft was a Washingtonian topic. His fiery and turbulent temperament all but involved him in a physical combat on the floor of the Senate with Senator Beveridge of Indiana. His opinion and attitude toward President Wilson has been previously stated.

There seems little wonder, as one comes to the end of Mr. Acheson's extremely interesting and fascinating account of Bailey's Congressional services, that he was ready to retire voluntarily at the end of his second senatorial term. New forces came to dominate the Democratic Party. The Wilsonian ideas controlling the party found the Texan an outsider. Has not Mr. Acheson chosen a most excellent sub-title when he refers to his fellow Texan as the Last Democrat? Truly, he was one of the last of an old school.

This volume is well documented with an excellent bibliography.

LLOYD WINTON TRUMAN

Central High School
Bridgeport, Connecticut

Basal Social Science. By David Snedden and Genevra Snedden. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. viii, 462 pp. \$1.40.

Basal Social Science, intended for the ninth grade, is an elementary sociology. As a simplified survey of all the principal groups of society, it is offered as an approach to Senior High School Social Science. It is an attractive volume, bound in green and stamped in black. It contains seventy illustrations, most of which are well chosen and function directly in the text. Aids for pupils and teachers—Questions, Bibliography, Projects—cover a total of about sixty pages. The bibliographies, which are annotated, are particularly good. The outstanding quality of the text is its clear, direct vocabulary and lively style. The authors, thinking of the pupils who are to use the text, have made much use of the dramatic episode. The selections have been well chosen, illustrating the various points exceedingly well. The study is developed logically from the familiar to the unfamiliar. Each chapter first seeks to organize the pupil's own experience, then proceeds with the textual explanation, and is concluded with an excellent summary.

On the other hand, one wonders why on page 110,

in a discussion of working groups, no attention is given to organized labor, or on page 355, in a discussion of Equalities and Inequalities, no attention is given to division of wealth and income. A somewhat too optimistic viewpoint is taken on page 200, in regard to cultivation of the tropics. Generalizations alone, with little or no real explanation, may become dangerous bits of information.

Whether this material is what should be taught in ninth grade Social Studies, the reviewer is not prepared to say. He does feel, however, that it might be more elementary than is necessary for the ninth grade.

BEN LUNDQUIST

University High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

The Diplomatic Protection of Americans in Mexico. By Frederick Sherwood Dunn. Columbia University Press, New York, 1933. \$5.

This study, the second in a series on Mexico in International Finance and Diplomacy issued under the auspices of the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences, is primarily a fresh approach to a problem of international law, but at the same time is a valuable commentary on the history of American foreign policy. Chapter headings are topical, although the approach follows a chronological sequence. Chapter one is introductory, while the next three carry the reader to the era of Diaz, with a thorough consideration of problems created by territorial ambition and annexation, and the development of Isthmian transport or control.

The principal task of the author was of necessity the winnowing of innumerable cases, claims of individuals, and representations of governments into principles and classifications. These are presented in chapters on "Forced Loans and Special Taxes," "Revolutionary Damages," "Limitations on Protection," "Denial of Justice," and "Police Protection." The work of the various commissions, and the statements of governmental policy on these points do not lend themselves to easy summary. Inconsistency and uncertainty, both on policy and points of law, have made these negotiations a dubious phase of our foreign relations. In his treatment Mr. Dunn has been thorough and comprehensive, without being unduly tedious in his recital of cases.

More general interest will be attached to the five concluding chapters on the period since 1910. Much has been written on Mexican nationalism, the problems of agrarian reform, and the oil laws. The present treatment is concise and clarifying, and displays a scholarly detachment. The Claims Convention of 1923, which preceded American recognition, and the principle of contractual renunciation of protection, conclude the treatise. A lull has appeared in our troubled Mexican affairs, but not, concludes Mr. Dunn, due to the satisfactory adjustments of diplomacy. Although it has its uses, the practice of diplomatic protection is bound to be ineffective in the removal of international friction.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College

Man's Great Adventure. By Edwin W. Pahlow. Boston, Ginn and Company, 1932. 854 pp. \$2.12.

Ancient Civilization. By Hutton Webster. New York, D. C. Heath and Company, 1931. 604 pp. \$2.12.

The Dawn of Literature. By Carl Holliday. New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1931. 367 pp. \$3.50.

In *Man's Great Adventure* Professor Pahlow traces in graphic style the story of mankind from the Old Stone Age down to the date of publication. He proceeds with three well defined aims. He would have school children come away from their history courses feeling that they are citizens of the world. He would train them to think in terms of social data. He would encourage them consciously to hold on to the idealism inherent in youth. The whole book is conceived and executed in this spirit. The facts set forth (and there are thousands of them included) are selected to inspire the student with a lively sense of man's slow, intermittent, but no less certain ascent from barbarism to civilization. The essential unity of the race is stressed throughout. Nationalist prejudices are rigorously excluded. Such highly controversial subjects as the rise of the Christian Church and the emergence of Soviet Russia are handled fearlessly and objectively. The book is profusely illustrated. It is equipped with helpful suggestions for classroom use.

Professor Webster's *Ancient Civilization* appears as a revision of his well known "Ancient History." It is done in the modern spirit in that new emphasis is placed on the intellectual and cultural aspects of the ancient world as distinguished from purely political and military history. The style is clear, concise, and readable. No important fact is omitted. The arrangement is logical. The maps and illustrations are skillfully selected. Within the two covers of the book Professor Webster takes the pupil from prehistoric man down to the age of Charlemagne.

The value of Professor Holliday's *The Dawn of Literature* lies in the fact that he has popularized the too little known fields of Oriental writings. He presents in excellent translation excerpts from the literatures of Egypt, Babylon, Assyria, India, Persia, and Palestine. He sketches in the political and social background out of which these literatures sprang. The book makes good supplementary reading for students of the history of the ancient Orient. Classical students, too, might profit by acquainting themselves with the spiritual records of peoples outside the Graeco-Roman tradition.

STERLING TRACY

Columbia University

Standards for High School Teaching: Methods and Technique. By C. E. Reeves. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1932. xii, 558 pp. \$2.50.

Workbook in High School Observation and Practice Teaching. By C. E. Reeves. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1932. viii, 270 pp. \$1.00.

The *Standards for High School Teaching* seeks to summarize the criteria for evaluating specific methods and techniques of teaching. The *Workbook* sets up ex-

ercises by which the student may check his observations and practice teaching. The two productions parallel each other in organization. Close coordination between classroom courses in methods and technique on the one hand and field work in observation and practice teaching on the other is highly desirable. Teaching, however, is an extremely complex art, and does not lend itself readily to static forms. The author is well aware of this limitation and does not imply that his forms will supplant resourcefulness and alertness. Consequently, some of the standards given are open to question. For example, on page 21, we find "Specific references to books or magazines will save time for pupils over the practice of giving general references. The time spent in searching in a library can better be used for extra reading." Although the time factor is important, we are concerned in the Social Studies with teaching children how to find material, and general references become highly desirable. On page 447, we read, "Reading of true-false statements by the teacher is unsatisfactory." Judging by our experience here in University High School, mimeographed true-false statements are in no way superior to those which are dictated. On page 378, we find "The weight of opinion seems to be that they (Social Studies) should be unified in the junior high school and taught separately in the senior high school." On page 374, we read "Children of adolescent ages like biography" or "Character building is best secured through a study of social studies." These and perhaps other statements may be questioned. Of course, the standards are not to be considered final and dogmatic, and are open to supplementation by individual instructors.

A part of the work is devoted to methods in special subjects, one chapter of eighteen pages dealing with the Social Studies.

BEN LUNDQUIST

University High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

China's Foreign Relations, 1917-1931. By Robert T. Pollard, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. x, 416 pp. \$3.50.

In this volume we have for the first time an impartial and readable account of China's foreign relations during a period when that nation began to recover some of the rights and privileges usually recognized as essential attributes of a national sovereign state which were yielded to Western powers and Japan in the course of the nineteenth century. The author presents fully the rise of the movement to abrogate the unequal treaties and recounts the successes achieved up to 1931 with respect to tariff autonomy, extraterritoriality, concessions, and the Chinese Eastern Railway. The strategy of this new Chinese diplomacy has been to negotiate with each nation individually and thus to break the united front which the nations enjoying special privileges had been able to maintain thanks to the benefits conferred by the most-favored nation clause. The World War of course initiated this period of treaty revision, for as a consequence of it Germany lost its special privileges. For that reason,

Professor Pollard has chosen the year when China entered the conflict as the one in which to begin his study. He also discusses China's place at Versailles, the recognition of Soviet Russia, and the Washington Conference. The author has rendered a commendable service in assembling from scattered sources a clear and reasoned account of China's relations with the rest of the world during a most trying and significant period in its history.

CYRUS H. PEAKE

Columbia University

Progressive Social Action. By Edward T. Devine. The Macmillan Company, New York: 1933. vii, 225 pp. \$1.75.

Professor Devine's new volume should have a wide appeal, especially to teachers of the social sciences. As the author states in the preface, it deals with some of the larger issues of the day in their sociological aspects. In short, a program for progressive social action in dealing with the problems raised is the main content of the volume.

The opening chapter entitled, "World Citizenship" is a challenging and provocative plea for Americans to assume a more liberal state of mind in dealing with world problems. We have become a world power without realizing the responsibility of that situation. Americans must be educated to appreciate their obligations relative to the happy solution of such issues, as world peace machinery, the outlawry of war, the World Court, war debts, and the tariff.

Turning to national problems, many varied ones come under the author's consideration. Suggestive are those dealing with industrial democracy, economic planning and control, the rural problem, poverty, disease, crime, housing, etc. Each topic is discussed brilliantly and succinctly.

The chapter on industrial democracy demands special mention. While advocating the principle most ardently, the author is not dogmatic concerning the ways and means of its attainment. No hard and fast proposals are made. As he states it, "there are many paths to industrial democracy" (p. 55). However, the reader is reminded of the importance of the cooperative movement, especially in production and distribution, which, in the author's opinion, has unlimited possibilities, as one of the many paths leading toward industrial democracy.

Readers familiar with Professor Devine's views on what he has called the three persistent problems—poverty, disease and crime—will find little that is new in the present volume. Yet, the views, as restated are fresh and readable. The course of progressive social action, in relation to solving these problems, implies a heavy responsibility on our schools and education.

It would be difficult to imagine a more interesting and thoughtful discussion on the subject of housing than the one given in this volume. Proper housing for the working classes in our large cities is a major problem. "It is a condition of health and morals and good citizenship." The author laments that so little progress has been made in this country in the way of good housing. Many European countries are far ahead of us in

the matter. Governmental programs of building, ownership and management of housing has met the problem abroad when not met by private undertaking. American public opinion has not approved such a course here. How the housing problem can be met in this country is the basis of the author's outline of progressive social action.

The plan of progressive social action, as outlined with relation to the problems considered in the various chapters is admirable. Leadership for its fruition is necessary. Professor Devine believes that organized religion—Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish—can provide the needed leadership to launch a crusade in the interest of these worthy social reforms. An examination of their organized social creeds is set forth at some considerable length. Students of our social problems will find this discussion of the Church's approach to the matter most interesting and valuable.

LLOYD W. TRUMAN

Central High School,
Bridgeport, Connecticut.

The Real Personages of Mother Goose. By Katherine Elives Thomas. Lothrop, Lee and Shepherd Company, Boston, 1930.

After years of research in old books and manuscripts at the British Museum, the Bodleian, and the Library of Congress at Washington, Katherine Thomas tells her readers that "Mother Goose" was not written for children at all. The rhymes in fact are, like "Gulliver's Travels," bitter political satire, aimed chiefly at royalty.

The author demolishes the oft repeated story that the rhymes were first printed by Thomas Fleet of Boston, just as they were sung to his children by his mother-in-law, Mrs. Goose. "Mother Goose" was printed in England in 1620, and by Charles Perrault in Paris in 1628.

Each rhyme is traced to its origin in some historical character sketch. Geoffrey of Monmouth vouches for the fact that "Old King Cole" had at least one fiddler in his musical daughter. Edward, the Black Prince, is the King of France who

"With twenty thousand men,
Marched up the hill,
And then marched down again."

"Humpty Dumpty" is Richard III slain on Bosworth Field. Jack Horner's plum was an abbey title-deed, withheld from Henry VIII in his confiscation of monasteries by John Horner, the messenger. "Jack be nimble" is the Bishop of Glastonbury who also tries to escape the tax levied by Henry.

With Jack Horner too is linked "The House that Jack Built." Robbin the Bobbin, the big belled Ben, is Henry VII. Punch is England, who gave Judy, France, a blow in the eye; "Little Boy Blue" and "Jack and Jill" are flings at Cardinal Wolsey; "Little Miss Muffet" is Mary Queen of Scots, and John Knox is her big spider. Mary and Knox were rhymed together by Queen Elizabeth.

Thus with historical proofs and references, for 340 pages, Katherine Thomas delves in the history of nursery rhymes, ballads, and London Street Cries. She

has gathered an endless mass of materials, but the manuscript she quotes to prove her statements is not always clear nor convincing. This is partly because of her broken, stilted style, and lack in the printing of any definite plan and spacing. The research has been based partly on the Whitmore facsimile copy of the 1760 edition.

The reproductions of royal portraits are soft and clear. All the mothers and grandmothers now singing Mother Goose should read these tragic histories of the origin of these rhyming satires.

SARAH A. WALLACE

Washington, D.C.

Beaver, Kings and Cabins. By Constance Lindsay Skinner. Macmillan, New York, 1933. 273 pp., \$2.50.

This book represents a courageous attempt to deal comprehensively and yet picturesquely with the rôle played by the fur-trade in North American history. Much of it has a swing and a clarity which commend it as an introduction to the subject for the uninitiate. It is based on a great variety of original and secondary materials, most of them well-chosen, so that its major outlines are usually sound and illuminating. Occasionally, as for instance in dealing with Indian life, its fervor rises above itself almost to poetic insight. Although it is uneven in its proportions, a fairly adequate composite picture emerges from the combination of leisurely and crowded chapters. Finally, the illustrations, maps and decorations of W. Langdon Kihn make this a beautiful book and contribute an atmosphere not too far removed from the authentic.

Having said so much in praise of the performance of an extremely difficult task, it must be admitted that to a specialist or even to a general student of North American history the book will be exasperating for its carelessness, inaccuracy and incurable determination to turn possibilities into certainties when they can contribute to the color or effect which is being sought after. It is too much to ask that the author should know about such recent work by specialists as the truer picture of the Sable Island Settlement, but she might have been expected to know that the English did not give up interest in Hudson Bay for the sixty years after Hudson's death, that Astor did not determine that Oregon should be American, that Champlain's military service was in the Quartermaster Service, that St. Croix Island and Port Royal are far apart, and that middlemen's profits in trade with Europeans were at the bottom of most of the Indian alliances and wars. No modern scholar would accept in their entirety the careers here attributed to Radisson and La Salle. And what is one to make of the sentence: "It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the free traders . . . between 1768 and 1783 . . . deluged the Indian country with alcohol."

The bibliography might have been much more helpful even in its present proportions, if it had been carefully made. For some reason, what seems obvious indebtedness to Agnes M. Laut is not acknowledged. Biggar and Innis, to whom the author owes most, are

mentioned, but Innis's most important book, *The Fur Trade in Canada*, is omitted and instead he is made author of Davidson's *The North West Company*. There are other errors and there is no index. All in all, this is a lively and interesting, but rash and careless book. It is seldom far wrong in its general findings and while most of these are not original in the author, they ought to be better known. It cannot, however, be thought of as dependable in detail. B.

The Cabinet Council of England in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, 1622-1784, vol. II. By Edward Raymond Turner. The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1932. xix, 480 pp. \$7.50.

When Edward Raymond Turner died on the last day of 1929 he left this volume in typescript, and one of his students, Mr. Gaudence Megaro, undertook the difficult tasks of carrying it forward to publication and of compiling the bibliography. This he has accomplished in a manner that reflects credit both upon Mr. Turner and upon himself, and together with the Johns Hopkins Press he deserves the gratitude of those interested in English constitutional history. Students are likewise indebted to Mr. E. R. Adair for the introduction to the present volume, which combines a bibliographical survey of the problem in hand with a sensible appreciation of Mr. Turner's work.

The first volume (reviewed in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, October, 1931) told the story of the cabinet council from its inception down to 1717 when the king ceased to preside; and the present volume carries the account on to 1784 by which time the cabinet had at last become a formally recognized branch of the government. The first chapter contains a general narrative of the cabinet in the eighteenth century, and the succeeding chapters are short though by no means light monographs on the cabinet's meetings, procedure, work, and organization. Crammed with specific facts, these furnish a body of raw materials indispensable to any sound understanding of constitutional development during the century. Somewhat unfortunately but almost to be expected from Mr. Turner's determination to avoid facile generalizations, these facts are treated *in vacuo*, with scant reference to passing events. He undoubtedly could have illuminated much of what happened behind the scenes, but because of self-imposed limits, little "secret" history comes to light in these pages. Nevertheless, with respect to the present volume, much valuable information has become available.

During the first half of the eighteenth century the cabinet council tended to grow steadily larger, running up as high as twenty-two; but the reign of George III saw a reduction to about half that number. Meetings were held both at Whitehall and at the houses of the principal ministers, with a frequency depending on the need. "Generally they seem to have been held once a week, often twice, more frequently at times." While no formal record of the meetings was kept, it is clear that the principal ministers prepared an agenda of business. A good many of the cabinet transactions leaked out despite supposed secrecy, due to the size

and frequently miscellaneous membership of the body. So far as the actual work of the cabinet was concerned, it included matters touching the royal family, foreign affairs, parliamentary concerns, naval and military problems and domestic order. Among the more important functions of the cabinet was its relation to the regency, and here Mr. Turner is unusually valuable. During the sovereign's absence certain members were appointed to act in collective regency with limited powers under the title of the Lords Justices. Finally, mention may be made of Mr. Turner's conclusions with regard to the hypothesis concerning the inner and outer cabinets. He believes that there was no split but that certain ministers naturally had and exercised more responsible power than others without playing the rôle of an inner cabinet.

Any criticism of this work must start from the realization first that Mr. Turner might have revised it considerably had he lived, and secondly that he has rigorously adhered to his method of dealing only with established facts. We may see deficiencies in the method and regret that there are not more generalizations and more references to the stuff of history, but it cannot be denied that a valuable work has been done. Based entirely on original sources, frequently manuscript in character, the effect is often monumental. Several pages have a citation for every sentence. While piling up of evidence does not constitute history, it does provide the necessary materials for history, and when the cabinet council is treated in the rounded fashion that students desire the spade work done by

Edward Raymond Turner will receive the high appreciation it deserves. Meanwhile it is to be hoped that Mr. Megaro will fulfill his half-promise for a volume on "King, Ministers, and Parliament in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries," to be edited from Mr. Turner's draft and notes.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

The Development of Religious Toleration in England. By W. K. Jordan. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1932. 490 pp.

In analysing the ideas of religious toleration during the period from the beginning of the Reformation in England to the death of Queen Elizabeth, Dr. Jordan has made a valuable contribution to English intellectual history. Basing his narrative largely on pamphlet materials, gathered in various libraries here and abroad, he has brought together many interesting opinions from obscure sources. Such a task was by no means easy. The tenuous, even shadowy, nature of his subject makes the drawing of positive conclusions most difficult. Still more of a problem is the material on which the book mainly rests. The student of controversial literature, more than any other, must think while annotating. He must ask himself questions constantly concerning the purpose and the meaning of the author. He must estimate how much of a pamphlet is fact, how much argument, how accurate the "facts," and how justifiable the conclusions from those "facts."

After an inclusive chapter touching such topics as

American Economic Progress

AN ECONOMIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

By EDWARD FRANK HUMPHREY, Ph.D., Northam Professor of History and Government at Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. An interesting, factual narrative. John A. Krout, of Columbia University, says of this book, in the *American Historical Review*: "Few, if any, important factors in our economic history are omitted, and every topic is discussed in the light of the most authoritative secondary material, wherever primary sources have not been used. The volume is singularly free from those sweeping generalizations which often mar college textbooks. The author is content to describe rather than to judge, a commendable attitude." This book is one of the volumes in *The Century Historical Series*. Royal 8vo, 639 pp., illus. \$3.75.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNITED STATES

THIRD EDITION. By ISAAC LIPPINCOTT, Ph.D., Professor of Economic Resources in Washington University. This is a thorough revision and enlargement of one of the best known American economic histories. The revision brings the text strictly down to date and takes into account the revolutionary changes which have been made in our financial and industrial structures in recent years, especially since the beginning of the depression in 1929. The new edition includes a sound discussion of the efforts to combat the depression and of the new attacks upon the capitalist system, and offers a considerably expanded treatment of the social and political factors which have either influenced or sprung from our economic organization. 8vo, 734 pp. \$4.00.

D. APPLETON - CENTURY COMPANY

35 West 32nd Street, New York, N.Y.

2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

the meaning of toleration, the relation of the Renaissance and Reformation to toleration, and evidences of tolerant thought prior to 1558, Mr. Jordan focuses his attention on the reign of Elizabeth. He discusses such questions as the development of governmental and Anglican thought with respect to religious dissent, the attitude of the Puritans, Separatists, and Roman Catholics toward toleration, and the tolerant concepts of the laity. In this latter aspect, he is especially revealing with regard to Jacobus Acontius, the Anglo-Italian, who developed a rather elaborate theory of toleration.

In his analysis of governmental and Anglican thought, Mr. Jordan clearly reveals that practical considerations were the chief basis of the thoroughly tolerant attitude adopted by these dominant groups. While it is true that this attitude underwent a change in the direction of persecution after the inauguration about 1576 of the aggressive efforts to reclaim England for Catholicism, the tendency was nevertheless always toward toleration. The Elizabethan statesmen, both lay and ecclesiastical, were quite aware that the wholesale extermination of religious minorities would threaten the very foundation of the state. Comprehension rather than toleration then was the ideal of these men. This is not to suggest, however, that toleration was the universal practice of the Church and the government. Persecution sometimes hid behind political necessity, and many churchmen indeed were extremely intolerant. With regard to the Puritans, Mr. Jordan confirms a growing tendency to realize that they desired toleration only for themselves. The Catholic pleas for toleration are treated fairly although Mr. Jordan seems to feel a little suspicious of their sincerity. The Separatists, on the other hand, are presented as altogether significant adherents of toleration, contributing most, with the Anglican leaders and Acontius, to further the theory as well as the practice of that ideal.

These points and many others have been established in a scholarly fashion. It is probable, however, that clarity has at times been sacrificed to the accumulation of evidence. The book is too long, there are too many footnotes, and there are times when the reader may feel that the commentary is too obvious. In short, some ruthless cutting would have improved the book a great deal. Notwithstanding these palpable defects, which vitiate the effectiveness rather than lessen the value, this informing volume is very welcome.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

The Influence of the Commons on Early Legislation, A Study of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. By Howard L. Gray. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1932. xviii, 423 pp.

This is an informing volume upon an aspect and a period of English constitutional history that has been summarized far too often and analysed all too infrequently, especially with respect to the fifteenth century. The term, Lancastrian Constitution, is one (of the many) which historical writers have assumed

to be self-explanatory, with the result that in the generality of treatments the period is dismissed with facile generalizations based on Stubbs and essentially vague in character. Without making any pretensions to having produced a definitive and comprehensive constitutional history of the later middle ages in England, Professor Gray has succeeded in greatly illuminating an historical dark age in a manner likely to arouse gratitude among many students of English constitutional development.

This is not to say, however, that the present volume is easy reading. Only a Maitland, perhaps, could make such topics as parliamentary procedure, structure of the parliament roll, private and group bills, and the types of bills enrolled a fascinating investigation. Yet while several stretches in the volume are largely antiquarian in their quality, several are of genuine importance alike for the student of political and administrative history and for the social and economic historian. Again, the method followed is not without interest. Mr. Gray has gone from the known to the unknown and has interpreted "enrolled records with which we have long been familiar, in the light of the antecedent material from which they were compiled," namely, "bills of various sorts and sheets of statutes."

In the main his direct conclusions are of the confirming rather than of the innovating variety. He has proven that the share of the commons in the legislation of the latter half of the fifteenth century was not large, whereas he feels that Stubb's dictum that "never before and never again for more than two hundred years were the commons so strong as they were under Henry IV," may not be "altogether antiquated." Mr. Gray has also indicated the transition from the old comprehensive petition to a new type of private bill. Likewise he has thrown much light, largely of an incidental nature, as was to be expected, on the character of mercantile legislation and the changes taking place in the structure of English society. More than this, he has provided students with an authoritative account of procedure in its broadest aspects that should prevent the appearance of vague summaries in volumes which presume to deal with this period of parliamentary history.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

Russia and Asia. By Prince Lobanov-Rostovsky. Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. 313 pp. \$2.50.

The book under review is a defense of Russian imperialism which, contrary to the author's assurances, has come to an end after four hundred fat years. Prince Lobanov-Rostovsky explains its development from the early beginnings and justifies it on the ground that as one territory was swallowed, the next one had to be gobbled up in order to safeguard the previous one. "Only continuous expansion," the author insists, "and the establishment of chains of fortified posts would establish security, by placing the central provinces of the empire further from the borders." One cannot but observe that this is a procedure which, by

its own logic, can only end when there is no more territory to conquer.

Lobanov offers three reasons for Russia's expansion in Asia: "First, the quest for security against the Tartars; then, the growing consciousness of an imperial destiny as a result of her adoption of Byzantine political ideas; and finally, the adventurous quest of the Cossacks." He further states that "to those may be added the enterprising vision of certain merchant families which carried the great Novgorodian tradition of commercial exploration." Leaving out of consideration the first three factors, it would seem pertinent to ask: would the drive eastward still have taken place? Obviously, for the author admits that Russia "began thinking in terms of foreign markets and economic expansion" at the beginning of the 17th century. The conquest of Siberia in the middle of the 16th century is traceable to the same cause. The expedition which resulted in the acquisition of this huge domain "has been carefully prepared by the Stroganoffs (merchants)" whose interests centered in mining and in trade concessions, rather than in the mystical nature of an imperial destiny engendered by the Byzantine political ideas. Thus, the attempt to subordinate the basic economic motive of expansion to elements which carry significance only as contributing factors, is not warranted even by the meagre material presented by the author.

The author divides Russian imperialism into two periods. The first, endorsed by the entire nation and lasting until the end of the nineteenth century; the second, a reckless one, which took its form in the beginning of the present century, engineered by a small group of speculators and supported by the court camarilla.

There is no denying that the second period was less systematic and more feverish, but that was owing to the fact that abundant French capital flowing into Russia was in search of an outlet. To say that Russian imperialism was supported by the entire population is to take far too much for granted, unless, of course, we assume that the nation consisted of the merchants, the military and the "Tchin" caste. The overwhelming majority of the population, the peasantry, had neither a direct nor an indirect interest in the acquisition of far-off territories. In spite of the inducements offered by the government to the then free and later legally-emancipated great peasant masses to migrate into Siberia, the movement never amounted to more than a faint trickle of settlers. The author's contention, then, that in the irresponsible period of its imperialism Russia failed in the Far East because it ceased to have the country behind it, is not supported by any evidence. Actually, the groups which stood to profit by the conquest of new territories supported the state in the beginning of the twentieth just as firmly as they did in the nineteenth century, but Russia's designs failed because they clashed with those of another, and more efficient imperialistic power.

To Prince Lobanov-Rostovsky the Soviet policy in Asia is akin to the one pursued by the Tzaristic régime, that is, strictly imperialistic in its designs. The

author approves of this so-called Soviet policy, but he credits the reunion of all the Asiatic territories which declared themselves free from Russian domination in 1917-18 to the solidifying effect of the old régime. "That all the territories which had detached themselves from Russia during the period of anarchy were reunited again with that country," is, in the author's opinion, "conclusive proof of the extraordinary stability of the work accomplished by the Russian nation during the four centuries." As a matter of fact, this stability was not achieved by great benefits bestowed upon the Asiatic territories by the old régime, but primarily by a policy of ruthless subjugation. Therefore, with the memories of a rule of oppression still alive, the detached territories would not have returned had the Soviet government pursued a policy similar to that of its predecessor. The reunion was due to the Soviet government's renunciation of all imperialistic aims and to the offer of partnership in a union of autonomous republics. The perpetuation of this policy explains Soviet Russia's great influence over all those Asiatic nations which had come in contact with imperialistic powers. To maintain, as the author does, that old Russia's imperialism still marches on in Asia under the banners of the Soviets, is to shut one's eyes to reality.

At the time when events in the Far East are so prominently displayed on the front pages, books dealing with that part of Asia are indeed timely, but timely only when intelligently and thoroughly written. It cannot be said that "Russia and Asia" belongs to that category. The subject lends itself only to a treatment that would clearly present before the reader the numerous problems with which the Russo-Asiatic relations are beset. The author may have set out to achieve this end, but the lack of cohesion which characterizes the work, factual inaccuracies ("Kemal started organizing his own Communist Party"), analysis which is very often based on nothing more substantial than mere wish-fulfillment, the presentation of facts taken for the most part from secondary sources, and the constant flag-waving in the traditions of "my country, right or wrong," leads one to the conclusion that Lobanov's efforts and powers were inadequate to the task he had set himself.

W. LADEJINSKY

New York City

Modern European Civilization. By Hutton Webster, Ph.D. D. C. Heath and Company, 1933. xxxvi, 795 pp.

This is a clearly-written, well-arranged work which should be a welcome addition to the library of secondary school texts on modern European history. Although only fifty pages are devoted to Europe prior to 1600, and only one hundred pages are given to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries up to 1789, the remaining sections of the work are admirably done.

The discussions of the Commercial Revolution, Mercantilism, and Capitalism suffer from brevity, yet Dr. Webster manages to include the essentials. Those dealing with more strictly modern developments are

treated more adequately, and yet there are some weak spots in the latter pages. The author's assertion that the principles of Rousseau's "Social Contract" were put into effect by the French Revolutionaries is open to question. In the story of the post-war occupation of the Ruhr by France and Belgium, there is no mention of the fact that Britain refused to engage in the undertaking nor of the economic basis of the entire problem. The implications of such provisions of the Versailles treaty as the establishment of the Polish Corridor are entirely too quickly dismissed.

The conclusion, a prophecy for better racial relations, is somewhat over-optimistic, considering recent developments in Germany and India. The volume has a fairly complete bibliography of recommended readings and a good index. Concerning the former, the inclusion of such works as Professor Fay's *Origins of the World War* and the international studies of P. T. Moon, make rather strange the absence of Harry E. Barnes' *Imperialism and World Politics*.

S. L. JACKSON and S. B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

Florentine Merchants in the Age of the Medici. By Gertrude Randolph Bramlette Richards. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1932. x, 342 pp., *Errata*. \$4.50.

A few years ago Mr. H. Gordon Selfridge of London lent a collection of Medici documents—account books, letter books, and letters—to the Baker Library of the Harvard School of Business and it is from this material that the present book was prepared. At first, the reader is disappointed to learn that the documents pertain to the activities of the younger branch of the house of the Medici, but he is soon reassured, for the importance of the commercial activities of these Medici is made immediately apparent and the excellence of the author's scholarship quickly emerges.

The book begins with a short listing of the materials, which cover the period 1400-1600, and continues with a sketch of "Florence under the Medici," in which is stressed the economic rôle of the family. This exposition, altogether too brief for entire satisfaction, is followed by the translation of several of the manuscripts, each of which is preceded by a brief introductory summary. In the Appendix are to be found an untranslated letter, a catalogue of the collection, a biographical index, a geographical index, a glossary of business terms, a glossary of palaeographical terms, a bibliography, a genealogical table of the Medici family, and a trade map of the period. The book also has a complete index and an insert of *errata*.

It is almost superfluous to state that the present study is an indispensable guide to the Selfridge Collection, which, by the way, it makes no attempt to exhaust. It is, moreover, a valuable introduction to a palaeographical study of Italian commercial documents of the period and an important contribution to knowledge of economic activity in the later Middle Ages. It contains many gems, like the following, which was placed on the flyleaf of the ledgers:

In the name of the Omnipotent God and of the glorious Virgin, Madonna Saint Mary, and of St. John the Baptist,

and of St. Peter, and of St. Paul, and of St. Nicholas, and of St. Stephen, our advocate, and of St. Biagio, and of all the holy virgins and of all the celestial court of Paradise, that they pray God, that by His grace and mercy, He will give us good profit with the salvation of our souls and bodies.

The book has, however, its shortcomings. The history of Florence under the Medici does not give it enough detail a view of Florence's foreign commerce, a phase of economic activity with which most of the manuscripts are concerned, and it gives practically no account of Florence's political relations with the Turks. Furthermore, the few reproductions that are given of selected pages from the original have been so reduced that the innocent aspirant would be more discouraged than is necessary by their illegibility. Moreover, the map is extremely amateurish and very inferior to the general tone of the volume. It is poorly drawn and it shows only one of the routes from Constantinople to Florence. Finally, the bibliography should have been a critical one and more selective.

The study remains, however, an excellent piece of scholarship. It is of particular value as a first book to the student who contemplates work in the field of Renaissance economic palaeography.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

Alexander the Great. By Ulrich Wilcken. Lincoln Mac Veagh, The Dial Press, Inc., New York, 1932. 337 pp. \$5.00.

The Legacy of Alexander. By Max Cary. Lincoln Mac Veagh, The Dial Press, Inc., New York, 1932. 448 pp. \$4.00.

Professor Wilcken, one of the acknowledged masters in the field of ancient history, has written a life of Alexander the Great for the general reader. He has accomplished his task with conspicuous success without sacrificing his scientific integrity. His work is a model of popularization. There is no burdensome weight of footnotes. Citations of authorities are made only in the case of outstanding points of interest or controversy. A concise but adequate bibliography is included unobtrusively at the end. The translation from the German by G. C. Richards has the high merit of reading like an English original.

The biographer approaches his study with full recognition of the difficulties involved. The literary sources generally are late and contradictory. The dazzling genius of Alexander blinded his contemporaries while succeeding generations saw him through the mists of highly romanticized tradition. Even so, Professor Wilcken moves bravely through the best sources at his command and emerges with a fresh, vivid, and intelligent portrait of Alexander. He modestly disclaims writing the final word on the subject. Every generation, he points out, has tried to form its ideas of this unique personality "and that will be so long as we have a culture that does not repudiate its connection with the ancient world." At least it can be said that Professor Wilcken has admirably interpreted for this generation the life and career of Philip's son.

The author sees in Alexander the strongest instance

supporting the view which upholds the decisive importance of personality in history. Readily admitting that the Macedonian prince was a product of his age and surroundings Professor Wilcken maintains that he was far more than this. He was "a personality of quite unique genius, a marvelous mixture of demonic passion and clearness of judgment." Furthermore, the author is convinced that Alexander sincerely believed that he was descended from Herakles and Achilles. This sense of divine possession Alexander carried with him throughout life. But the hero was not merely a great romanticist, he was also a supreme realist in action. Professor Wilcken refutes conclusively those who have sought to transfer the credit for Alexander's military achievements to Parmenio and other subordinate commanders.

In estimating the statesmanly qualities of Alexander the biographer faces a more difficult problem. The conqueror was cut off before he had time to formulate any permanent political policies. However, it is possible, as the author shows, to get at some of the most important political ideas of Alexander. His greatest political idea was that of a world state, enjoying a common polity and a common culture. He believed in leveling racial barriers insofar as this was possible. He sought to erect a world economy alongside his world polity.

Professor Wilcken finally sketches the main lines of the enormous influence of the career of Alexander on the subsequent life of men. In the Roman Empire he sees the fruition of Alexander's dreams. He interprets Julius Caesar and Trajan in terms of Alexander's ideas. Outside the Graeco-Roman world he sees the career of Alexander leaving its stamp on China and Japan and much more deeply on the life and culture of Islam.

This book is in every sense worthy of its author and worthy of its subject.

Professor Cary in "The Legacy of Alexander" has succeeded in bringing out for English readers the first complete and detailed history of the Hellenistic age in one volume. The need for such a book has long been urgent. The author makes no claim to conspicuous original research in the field. He knows the masters and has followed them faithfully. Particularly is he indebted to W. W. Tarn. The material is well organized, the earlier sections dealing with the political history of the period and the later sections dealing with institutional and cultural history. In this latter section the topics considered include war craft, the internal organization of the Hellenistic monarchies, the new cities, the economic evolution of the period, and finally the art, science, philosophy, and religion of the age. The most satisfactory part of the book is that wherein the straight political narrative is set forth, the least satisfactory part the chapter on Hellenistic religion. Many interesting and controversial points are covered in the appendices. A most welcome series of genealogical charts makes the book indispensable to all serious students in the field.

STERLING TRACY

Columbia University

American History and Its Geographic Conditions. By Ellen Churchill Semple and Clarence Fielden Jones. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston: 1933. 541 pp. \$3.00.

The late Dr. Semple first published her book in 1903, when this country was beginning to recognize the importance of a scientific study of geography. One of the early reviewers considered the book a very valuable addition to the literature of American History, and it appears to have retained a position of honor through thirty years.

A comparison of chapter headings shows but one change in phrasing and that, perhaps, is the key to the significance of the new edition. Chapter XII, which in 1903 was called "Growth of the United States to A Continental Power Geographically determined," is now called "Growth of the United States to a Continental and World Power." This is surely the most important thing which has happened to the nation, and the new text rightly reflects this change. Whereas the 1903 edition discussed the possibility of an Isthmian Canal, the 1933 text sets forth the effects of that canal upon our world position and our South American and Asiatic trade. Whereas in the author's earlier view, our Caribbean trade was but a potentiality; the new edition gives facts to show our increase in that direction. Our potentialities as a Pacific power do not seem, however, to have been given sufficient emphasis.

A word as to some attitudes found in both texts will be of value. It is interesting to find that the prediction

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... "we may look to see the political union of that which is geographically one . . ." referring to North America is not included in the new text. Both texts in discussing the future of the United States in the Caribbean sea—"The American Mediterranean"—hold to the view that the States will some day "draw to itself . . . the fragments of European Empires in the Caribbean Sea," through the influence of a politico-geographical law of gravity—which means that islands "tend to fall to the nearest political domain." (p. 408). What this law may mean for England, Ireland, Greenland, the Philippines, New Zealand, Japan, Borneo, Papua, and the Faeroes is a matter of conjecture. Furthermore, one may question the statement that, "A country in the germ, like the human embryo, passes rapidly through all the lower phases of development before it evolves to the type of the parent stock." (p. 335) Also, we find that Americans are energetic because of their Anglo-Saxon ancestry (p. 228), while at another point an invigorating climate is held as the principal cause of activity (p. 239).

The revised edition itself is more attractive than the earlier volume, and is supplied with more and better maps and charts than the latter. A good physiographic map of fair size would be a helpful addition. The footnoting is fuller and more useful in the newer edition and is at the bottom of the page rather than at the end of the chapter as formerly. The source of many historical statements is now noted, which gives the new text more historicity than the old. The revision throughout shows use of new materials dealing with both old and new subjects. The reading matter itself is easier to handle through the use of headings and subheadings. The supplementary reading lists are an interesting addition designed for the use of teachers. The Literary reading list is an excellent idea, although it is strange that Thoreau's name does not appear. By and large, the new edition is an improvement upon the old. The economic revisions are by Professor Jones and he has used the best new material. With the reading lists now added, this book is ready again to assume an important place.

HAROLD J. JONES

New York City

Book Notes

Jarvis Means Morse's study entitled *A Neglected Period of Connecticut's History, 1818-1850* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1933, 359 pp.) is a distinct contribution to the literature of American history and a model of what is possible of accomplishment in the field of local history. To date by far the greater number of our state histories are little more than a miscellany of political events with occasionally a smattering of facts pertaining to other institutional phases. Dr. Morse presents in scholarly fashion a well balanced picture of a generation of Connecticut life. Only two chapters out of the seven into which the book is divided are devoted to political affairs. Chapter six—"The Economic Basis of Society" is a veritable mine of information for those who care to know how the people

of Connecticut gained a livelihood during the first half of the nineteenth century. The accounts of religion and education indicate that during these years the church continued to be the backbone of the state and that learning flourished for its moral rather than for its cultural value. In the chapter dealing with humanitarianism and social reform the author shows pretty conclusively that whatever may have been the cause for the rise of social consciousness in America during the three decades preceding 1850, the people of Connecticut gave free expression to their feelings respecting the status of the negro, temperance, prison conditions and women's rights. Here is a job well done and one of which the author may be justly proud. C.

Professor Allan Nevins has revised the small manual entitled *Masters' Essays in History* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1933, 24 pp., 25 cents), originally drawn up to assist graduate students in Columbia University. Its circulation has justified a new edition in which a few changes and several corrections have been made.

The general reader interested in international affairs and the student of world politics are indebted to the World Peace Foundation of Boston for making available in the United States three important booklets dealing with subjects of international interest. One of these is *Ten Years of International Jurisdiction (1922-1932)*, an "authorized statement" of seventy-five pages issued by the Permanent Court of International Justice and giving a succinct account of the origins, organization, jurisdiction, and work of the World Court. The second is *International Intellectual Coöperation, 1932*, a booklet of 147 pages issued by the International Institute of Intellectual Coöperation and giving a convenient summary of the work of that body during the year 1932 in the various fields of international intellectual endeavor. The third is *The Verdict of the League: China and Japan in Manchuria* which, in a space of 102 pages, contains the most important League documents relating to the Manchurian dispute, as well as useful notes and an enlightening introduction by Professor Manley O. Hudson of Harvard University.—W. C. L.

The fine craftsmanship exhibited in the earlier volumes of the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* is continued in volumes nine and ten (The Macmillan Company, New York, 933. xxi, 661 pp; 652 pp.). Volume nine covers from Laboulaye to political machine and volume ten from machinery to moratorium. Among the outstanding articles in volume nine are Marquis de Lafayette by Louis Gottschalk, Lamartine by J. Salwyn Shapiro, Liberty by Harold J. Laski, James Russell Lowell by Allan Nevins, Cyrus Hall McCormick by William T. Hutchinson and the three essays on the leather industries. Volume ten is especially rich in biographical material. Among the better biographical sketches are Alfred Marshall by W. C. Mitchell, John Marshall by E. S. Corwin, Metternich by W. L. Langer, James Mavor by J. B. Brebner, Francisco De Miranda by W. P. Robertson and John

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Mitchell by Elsie Glück. Of the non-biographical articles those dealing with materialism, meat packing, medicine, metals, scientific methods, migrations and money are outstanding. It will be most unfortunate if because of the present economic depression, college and secondary school authorities will feel too poor to put these admirable volumes at the disposal of the youth of the land.

All those interested in a clearer understanding of the conflict of interests between England and her American colonies which finally culminated in rebellion and civil war will welcome the appearance of Arthur Cecil Bining's monograph *British Regulation of the Colonial Iron Industry* (University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1933. xx, 163 pp.). In this study Dr. Bining shows that in 1775 the American colonies of Great Britain ranked third in the production of pig and bar iron, being outranked only by Russia and Sweden. Distance between England and America, lack of knowledge on the part of Great Britain about colonial affairs, inability on the part of the mother country to enforce its edicts together with the growing industrial independence of the Americans were, in the author's opinion, the chief reasons for Britain's failure to apply rigidly a system of mercantilism. Six appendices contain much valuable statistical material relating to the colonial iron trade and manufacture.

Donald G. Tewksbury's monograph, *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities Before the Civil War* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1932. x, 254 pp.) covers a long neglected phase of our social and cultural history. After stressing the influence of the moving frontier on higher education, the author gives the main features of the story of the founding of both denominational colleges and state universities before the outbreak of the Civil War. One is impressed by the sectarian rivalry of the period and with the zeal of the Presbyterians in particular for higher institutions where their ministry might be trained. The bibliographical statement should prove very serviceable to others who may desire to explore further in this field.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from September 16, to October 14, 1933

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, Ph.D.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Scott, James B. *The era of discoveries*; Wash., D.C., Carnegie Endow. for Internat. Peace; 60 pp.

MISCELLANEOUS

Bye, Edgar C., Compiler. *A bibliography on the teaching of the social studies*. Rev. edition. N.Y.: H. W. Wilson; 104 pp.; 60c.

Croce, Benedetto. *Theory and history of historiography*. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 317 pp.; \$4.50.

BIOGRAPHY

- Osterweis, Rollin. *Judah C. Benjamin*. N.Y.: Putnam; 205 pp.; \$3.00.
 Fay, Bernard. *The two Franklins*. Boston: Little, Brown; 413 pp. (15 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
 Graham, Stephen. *Boris Godunof*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 299 pp.; \$2.50.
 Fulford, Roger. *The wicked uncles; the [Duke of Kent] father of Queen Victoria and his brothers*. N.Y.: Putnam; 320 pp. (6 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Angle, Paul M. *Lincoln, 1854-1861*. Springfield, Ill.: Abraham Lincoln Ass'n.; 1st Natl. Bank Bldg.; 430 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$3.75.
 Channon, Henry. *The Ludwigs of Bavaria*. N.Y.: Dutton; 256 pp.; \$3.00.
 Linklater, Eric. *Mary Queen of Scots*. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 161 pp.; \$1.50.
 Palmer, Frederick. *With my own eyes; a Personal story of Battle Years*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; 396 pp.; \$3.50.
 Wilkinson, Clennell. [Richard] *Coeur de Lion*. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 180 pp.; \$1.50.
 Whitham, J. Mills. *Men and women of the French Revolution*. N.Y.: Viking; 429 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.75.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Callender, Clarence L., editor. *The crisis of democracy*. Phila.: Amer. Acad. of Social and Polit. Science; 237 pp.; \$2.00.
 Chang, Yi-Ting. *The interpretation of treaties by judicial tribunals*. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 196 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$2.75.
 Strachey, Evelyn J. St. L. *The menace of Fascism*. N.Y.: Covici, Friede; 272 pp.; \$2.25.
 Tobin, Harold J. *The termination of multipartite treaties*. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 321 pp. (9 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
 Williams, J. F., and Lauterpacht, H., Editors. *Annual digest of public international law cases, 1923 to 1924*. N.Y.: Longmans; 516 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$12.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Lloyd-George, David. *War memoirs of David Lloyd-George, 1914-1915*; Vol. 1. Boston: Little, Brown; 476 pp.; \$4.00.
 Newbold, Walton. *Democracy, debts and disarmament*. N.Y.: Dutton; 357 pp.; \$3.00.
 Snowden, Nicholas. *Memoirs of a spy [on the eastern front]*. N.Y.: Scribner; 348 pp.; \$2.75.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Brown Book of the Hitler terror and the burning of the Reichstag, prepared by the world committee. N.Y.: Knopf; 360 pp.; \$2.50.
 Corsi, Edward C. *Poland, the land of the white eagle*. N.Y.: Wyndham Press; 435 E. 24th St.; 224 pp.; \$2.50.
 Dyboski, Roman. *Poland*. N.Y.: Scribner; 443 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$5.00.

- Headstrom, Birger R. The story of Russia. N.Y.: Stokes; 548 pp.; \$3.50.
 Kidd, Beresford J. The Counter-Reformation, 1550-1600. N.Y.: Macmillan; 270 pp.; \$3.40.
 Korovine, Eugene A. The U.S.S.R. and disarmament. N.Y.: Carnegie Endow. for Internat. Peace; 70 pp.; 5c.
 Zurcher, Arnold J. The experiment with democracy in Central Europe. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 337 pp. (16 p. bibl.) \$2.50.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Erleigh, Viscount. The South Sea Bubble. N.Y.: Putnam; 176 pp.; \$1.50.
 Jolliffe, J. E. A. Pre-feudal England; the Jutes. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 130 pp.; \$2.50.
 Read, Conyers, editor. Bibliography of British History; Tudor period, 1485-1603. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 490 pp.; \$8.50.
 Simpson, Helen D. The Spanish marriage. [Phillip and Mary, of England.] N.Y.: Putnam; 175 pp.; \$1.50.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Breasted, James H. The dawn of conscience. N.Y.: Scribner; 457 pp.; \$3.00.
 Dawson, Christopher H. The Age of the Gods. [Pre-historic Europe and the East.] N.Y.: Sheed and Ward, 466 pp. (24 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Greene, William C. The achievement of Rome. Cambridge: Harv. Univ. Press; 577 pp.; \$4.50.
 Pendlebury, J. D. S. A Handbook to the Palace of Minos at Knossus. N.Y.: Macmillan; 103 pp.; \$1.35.
 Sandford, K. S. and Arkell, W. J. Prehistoric Survey of Egypt and Western Asia; vol. 2, Paleolithic man and the Nile valley in Nubia and upper Egypt. Chicago: Univ. of Chi. Press; 111 pp.; \$6.00.
 Schütte, Gudmund. Our forefathers, the Gothonic Nations; a manual of the ethnography of the Gothic, German, Dutch, Anglo-Saxon, Frisian and Scandinavian peoples. Vol. 2. N.Y.: Macmillan; 498 pp. (7 p. bibl.); \$9.50.
 Stevens, C. E. Sidonius Apollinaris and his age. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 244 pp.; \$3.75.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Barker, Eugene C., and others. Our nation grows up. [ele. history.] Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson; 352 pp.; \$1.00.
 Coleman, Charles H. The election of 1868; the Democratic effort to regain control. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 407 pp. (12 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
 Coulomb, Charles A. American history for Pennsylvania, Books 1 and 2. N.Y.: Macmillan; 434, 469 pp.; \$1.20 each.
 Cowan, R. E., and Cowan, R. G. A bibliography of the history of California, 1510-1930. 3 vols. San Francisco: John Henry Nash; 830 pp.; \$35.00.
 Flick, Alexander C., editor. History of the State of New York; vols. 3 and 4. [period of the Am. Rev.] N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 399, 401 pp.; \$5.00.
 Latané, Edith. America's Story, for Latané and Latané's American History. Boston: Allyn and Bacon; 176 pp. 50c.

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- Myres, S. D., Jr. *American foreign policy*. Dallas, Tex.: Southern Methodist Univ.; 46 pp.; 25c.
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- Tascher, Harold. *American foreign policy to the selection of the trans-isthmian canal route*. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill.; 11 pp.; 25c.

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- Egypt Today*. Arthur Merton (*Fortnightly Review*, October).

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- Foch and the Fate of Britain*. Capt. Liddell Hart (*Fortnightly Review*, October).

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- The Advance from Mons. Maj. A. H. Burne (*Fighting Forces*, October).
- The Medical Service of the French Army during the World War. Col. A. Schickelé (*Military Surgeon*, October).
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- Popular Doctrines in the United States. J. J. Spengler (*Journal of Political Economy*, October). II. Malthusianism.
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